TRENDS IN EDUCATION

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Environmental Studies in the Middle Years

The Taylor Report

Educational Broadcasting

Motivation and Achievement

Psychology in Schools

Department of Education and Science

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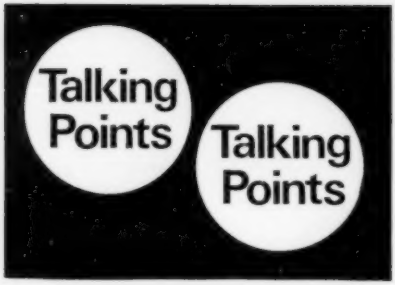

Bible readings

A few weeks ago the reviewers on BBC1's *Read All About It*, the programme about paperback books, all commented on how unreadable one of their selections proved to be. The book in question, an academic study of the way in which the media deal with political matters, was – of course – written by a sociologist.

I say 'of course' not because I hold anything against sociologists. Quite the reverse. They are a much-maligned and (if you will forgive me) *misunderstood* lot. And, like the cuckoo, they lay their eggs in other birds' nests. Thus we have a sociology of law, a sociology of education, a sociology of religion, a sociology of science, and so on. The unfortunate reader may, contemporaneously as it were, have to grapple not just with one kind of jargon but with two.

Jargon can certainly be defended, but not when it acts as a barrier against understanding. All too often writers of academic books use it merely because the impenetrability of their language disguises the poverty of their thought and because jargon brings to their work a spurious distinction. Readers will treat with awe and respect, so the theory goes, any book they cannot understand.

But they won't, you know. They will pick up the book and glance through it and, being fastidious people, put it carefully back on the shelf – unless, of course, they are academics themselves, in which case they will restore it to its place and wait until it is remaindered.

Easy reading, as Sheridan remarked, is damned hard writing, and the sad truth is that most people cannot write for toffee. It was not always so. George Fox's *Journal*, the autobiographies of nineteenth-century working-class radicals, and soldiers' letters home from the Peninsular and Crimean Wars are evidence that many ill-educated writers had a rude eloquence that could often be effective and appealing.

They had a splendid model. The Authorized Version of the Bible taught many people who were otherwise unschooled how to write simply and well. Such a tribute cannot – and will not, I am afraid – be made to the New English Bible, that monument to the decline of good, simple English prose.

There is a sad irony – is there not? – in the fact that, as Christianity occupies less and less of a central place in the lives of most people, the Church put forward as part of the remedy a version of the Bible that, however accurate it may be as a translation, is cliché-ridden and dull. Its distinguished panel of translators, by emphasizing the letter of the Word, played havoc with the spirit.

And we all know, don't we, what St. Paul (2 Corinthians, chapter 3, verse 6), in his own inimitable fashion, said about that!

Department of sackcloth and ashes

The editors apologise to readers for the lateness of this issue. Unfortunately we have had production difficulties but hope to be back on schedule next year.

Environmental Studies in the Middle Years

During the recent past there has been in some 8–13 schools a considerable move away from the teaching of geography, history, and science as separate subjects and a corresponding move towards more broadly conceived courses of study. Such courses, variously described as environmental studies, integrated studies, social studies, or simply as project work are, whatever their title, related to local interests or to topics suggested by individual pupils or teachers.

This series of articles, written from the subject specialist's point of view, is based on the findings of HMI who made short visits to forty-three middle schools during 1975 and 1976 to see the work in environmental studies with children aged 8–13 years.

Trends 1977/4

The background to the survey

COLIN SELBY

HM Inspector, Midland Division, had until recently national responsibility for environmental education

During the summer terms of 1975 and 1976, HMI visited forty-three schools to observe their work in environmental studies for children aged 8 – 13 years. Each of the eight regional divisions of the Inspectorate was asked to nominate three schools: in 1975, the schools chosen represented those where history, geography and science were generally supplemented or replaced by environmental studies; in 1976, the schools chosen were spending a considerable amount of time on environmental studies. HMI sought to determine the schools' own reasons for developing such courses and their strategies for carrying them out. Out of the forty-three schools visited, seventeen were primary, nineteen were middle (nine 8–12, nine 9–13, and one 10–14), and seven were secondary. They varied from a small rural primary school with fifty children on roll to an inner-city comprehensive school for 1,260 boys and girls.

In 1975, the twenty-four schools chosen were visited by teams consisting of a geography, a history and a science specialist, accompanied in many cases by an HMI with general experience in the middle years of schooling. In 1976, the nineteen schools nominated were visited by two HMIs who had a special interest in and experience of environmental studies in schools. The whole group of forty-three schools is, in no sense, a random sample and is too small to allow national conclusions to be drawn. Nevertheless, the visits have provided evidence of good practice in environmental studies.

Environmental studies

What do we mean by 'environmental studies'? On the evidence obtained from the HMI survey, environmental studies may be defined as a means of organizing the work in school so that a study of the school's immediate surroundings or of the community in which it is situated can provide starting points for learning. In other words, such studies provide a framework for learning rather than a clearly defined area of knowledge. It is often far from clear what the desired outcomes of these studies should be for individual children. Many schools set out to promote the learning of a range of skills, knowledge and attitudes that will provide a useful basis on which children may build future studies, while other schools emphasize the enjoyment of the present task rather than the progressive development of learning: this is a cause for concern.

This sort of broadly based work is variously described as social studies, integrated studies, topic work, integrated project work, studies, humanities, environmental education, world studies, local studies, humanities/integrated studies and humanities/environmental studies. Whatever the title, there is a considerable uniformity in the areas of study which this work replaces or supports. Almost every school visited, both in 1975 and 1976, included geography; three-quarters included history; and more than half mentioned geography, history and science. Other components of environmental studies were mathematics, English, art/craft, religious education, drama and music. In many schools, the learning of some basic skills – particularly the use of language in reading and writing – was also supported by this work.

Many of the schools had a plan for environmental studies which emphasized the importance of encouraging individual children's development in terms of skills, knowledge and attitudes.

There was a great similarity in the schools' organization of teaching groups and a preference for mixed ability units which, particularly in some middle and secondary schools, were often combined with some form of setting. In individual classes, children either worked on their own, in small groups, or as a whole class with their teacher. The time allotted for environmental studies varied from seventy minutes (one double period) in each timetable cycle to as much as two-thirds of all the time available: some primary and middle schools set aside up to six hours each week and there was often considerable freedom in the way such large time allocations were used.

A variety of methods was used to provide a framework for environmental studies. Some schools provided detailed schemes of work, for example by listing the skills, knowledge and sometimes the attitudes both for the particular topics concerned, and separately for geography, history and science. Some schools gave teachers detailed guidance about the activities to pursue during field visits and on the specific content of individual lessons.

A balance was sometimes achieved between the different components of geography, history and science, generally by monitoring the topics studied by individual children over a period of time or by

devising a scheme of work as a guide. Alternatively, the overall plans were outlined by the head and then elaborated by individual teachers. Some schools used materials such as the Schools Council's 'Science 5–13'. In the smaller primary and middle schools, the head usually took the lead in developing detailed schemes of work.

Coherence of the work

Schools were equally divided into those which had a balanced programme of environmental studies that included geographical, historical and scientific thinking, and those in which environmental studies consisted of elements that might or might not be related to each other in the common purpose of encouraging more broadly based learning.

Teachers met to talk informally about their environmental studies work in detail and to develop a carefully considered structure. The review of children's work was referred to in one case as a matter for staff meetings which were usually led by the head in small schools or the responsibility was delegated to a particular teacher. Occasionally a local education authority adviser was involved in the work. Heads of major subject departments in secondary schools were usually involved in helping the environmental studies team and took part in the teaching. In a minority of the primary and middle schools, the pupils themselves were involved in deciding on topics for study. In most junior and middle schools, the whole staff, or at least the majority of teachers, were involved in environmental studies, since these schools were usually organized on a class-teacher basis. On the other hand, in secondary schools, it was common to find a small team of teachers, including appropriate specialists in geography, history or science.

Most schools assessed the quality of children's work and progress. Verbal or written comments gave general encouragement to the younger pupils. Continuous assessment was also used in the junior and middle schools. One middle school kept a written record of the achievement of individuals that referred to progress made and to weaknesses to be remedied.

Children can learn to record their work with increasing refinement both in method and in the quality of the recording. They may progress from written work, through graphs, drawings, models and photography in the early years, to the use of tape-recordings, coloured slides, letters to outside bodies and other more sophisticated forms of writing by the age of 11. Children can also increase their awareness of detail in observations. For example, in one middle school, the study of snails led to a refinement of mathematical ideas on spirals and to a greater variety and sophistication of model making, drawing and writing. Skills of mapping and model making were also developed in the representation of historical changes in the immediate neighbourhood using parish records and other documents.

Throughout the middle years, children are successfully learning to identify problems and to suggest possible solutions which they go on to test. One primary school used workcards and questionnaires to

suggest problems to 8- and 9-year-olds which encouraged the children to set up controlled experiments, to record observations and form conclusions – for example, about factors affecting the growth of green plants. In one middle school, 11-year-olds looked for patterns in the growth of lichens on trees, and in one primary school children speculated about how fish keep cool, on the effects of weather on the growth of grass and milk production, on the effects of sprays on plant growth in hedgerows, and on methods used to build old houses. These children also designed experiments to study the effect of sand and grit on roadside grass and analysed their own local evidence in studying the changing role of the canal from transport to leisure use.

Links with other phases of education

One LEA has set up subject panels to coordinate work in first, middle and upper schools. In some secondary schools, heads of relevant subject departments met the environmental studies teachers in the school and took part in the teaching. In some cases, children and staff sought advice from more highly qualified staff in the upper school.

The general impression was that teachers organize environmental studies because they believe that it is more effective than work in separate subjects. They maintained that such studies combine work in the basic skills, particularly in language but also in mathematics, with opportunities for learning how to study by using local resources. Teachers often claimed that the needs of individual pupils are more effectively catered for, that children's interest is more easily sustained, and that these broadly based studies also provide a useful bridge between primary and secondary education throughout the middle years. Environmental studies are thought to be a more effective strategy for learning, and teachers say that children should learn about their environment and develop the ability to think about their immediate surroundings in relation to those of other people in the same or other places and in other times.

Successful development

The factors that appeared to encourage the development of successful environmental studies in the middle years may appear self-evident. Of greatest importance was the effective leadership of the head in the primary or middle schools or of a head of department, with the support of the head, in the secondary schools. Such leadership functioned by providing a clearly stated philosophy for environmental studies and a statement of general aims, resulting in a structure of objectives related to the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be encouraged and developed. Such statements of aims and objectives made it clear that basic skills in mathematics and language were of paramount importance and identified the disciplines contained within the environmental studies.

With good leadership, teachers worked as a team within a framework which suited their preferred teaching styles and their experience,

skills and interests. As new teachers joined the school, they were helped to become effective members of the team and there was a regular pattern of staff discussions. Classroom activities and out-of-school visits were well prepared and the ways in which such visits, both day and residential, were expected to contribute to the learning process, were clearly defined. The children in these schools responded with interest and enthusiasm. Their written work was well done and well displayed. Individuals were helped by careful assessment to understand their strengths and weaknesses and steps were taken to fill gaps in their learning.

Different viewpoints

Teachers seem to be divided in their views about the criterion that environmental studies in the middle years should provide an effective foundation for later studies, particularly in geography, history and science. One view is that the important components in such a foundation are proficiency in mathematics and language, powers of observation and respect for evidence, and an ability and a willingness to pursue individual assignments. Although this view takes account of particular skills, such as the use of maps, there is less emphasis on a particular core of knowledge. On the other hand, importance is attached to introducing children to a wide range of interests, not only of their own choosing but also to activities chosen by the teacher, perhaps in connexion with visits made for study in the local neighbourhood or further afield. The emphasis, then, is on the children's personal and social development, including the encouragement of a lively curiosity and the development of their ability to think for themselves. The second point of view, however, lays greater stress on a detailed statement of the knowledge and skills to be acquired in, say, geography and history, even though the classroom activities are based on themes that are inspired by their visits to the local area.

The following three articles consider these views in the context of the place of history, geography and science in environmental studies in the middle years.

History and environmental studies

JOHN JENNINGS

HM Inspector, Northern Division, with special responsibility for history

Environmental studies, however defined, must be interdisciplinary. There is, however, no all-embracing definition of 'environmental studies'. In practice, it can mean 'gardening', 'local studies', 'outdoor science', or almost anything the school cares to evolve. Whatever the school's definition, the resulting scheme must be carefully thought through if full benefit is to be derived and damage to pupils and disciplines avoided.

Evidence from survey

The HMI survey and visits showed that lack of definition took a variety of forms. One school was uncertain whether environmental studies 'constituted a discrete subject or a reservoir of examples'; another was bedevilled by an argument as to whether environmental studies dealt with local or regional areas. Yet another school regarded environmental studies as an umbrella term applied to those separate subjects not involved in mathematics or language work. However, it is not only vague definition that is harmful, but also distorted or biased definition. The historians in one school found the geography-based modules too restrictive, and in another it was found that the school and its immediate environs were a history teacher's paradise; but the emphasis in environmental studies on social skills excluded the historical aspects of the area.

The choice of participating subjects will depend on the close definition and the carefully thought-out purposes of an environmental studies scheme. A later consideration will be what each subject has to offer in its own right and in cooperation with other disciplines. There is, however, a wider educational consideration – is the pupil better served by the inclusion of a particular subject in environmental studies, or would it be better to teach that subject separately? To answer this question, one needs first to consider two factors – what other opportunities pupils will have of studying a subject, and what unique and essential contributions of the subject to a pupil's development need to be safeguarded. In the first consideration, history is particularly vulnerable. Most children's appreciation of history begins at the age of 8 or 9, and many opt out of history at the age of 13 or 14. Thus history teaching in the middle years is not a preparation for later stages, it is the only professional help that half our pupils will ever get, and this consideration should be given a high priority when history is included in an environmental studies

programme. One school, for example, had history both as a separate subject and as a component of environmental studies, whereas another school had no history at all. Most schools used environmental studies as the sole vehicle for teaching history.

Unique contribution

History is an important subject. It is essential to the creation of a politically articulate electorate in that it deals with the acquisition, use, abuse, and loss of power and, uniquely, shows the long-term effects of political and economic action. Secondly, through its study of remote periods and of world history, it demands the active understanding of societies with radically different assumptions from ours, an understanding crucial to the successful evolution of multi-racial and international communities. Thirdly, it teaches children how to evaluate evidence, to argue from incomplete evidence – where to be tentative in conclusions, where to be firm – and how to test conclusions. Fourthly, it helps to develop children's understanding of causes and effects and of chronology. Fifthly, it is the source of a wealth of true stories – of adventure, romance, tragedy, mystery, comedy – that no child should be denied. Sixthly, it is an important element in leisure pursuits, looming large in adult education programmes, in book-buying and borrowing, in comics and television, and in children's own folk-lore. Local history associations are numerous. It is the backbone of the tourist industry (and so important to the economy). Children should be prepared for this important aspect of their non-working life. Finally, it promotes the development of skills in narrative, description, analysis and constructive argument.

Survey findings

The survey and visits to schools showed that, with good planning, most of the essentials of history could be taught, and could be taught well, in the context of environmental studies. In the majority of schools, attempts were made to analyse motives behind human behaviour. Most work was at a rudimentary level; but in one primary school pupils were analysing the causes of wars, revolutions and migrations:

> 'In general, there was an expected simplicity. . . . One pupil said that the Second World War was caused by Germany wishing to conquer the world. None could see at first a possible German point of view. Argument was more fruitful in the fourth-year class dealing with prehistoric man in a vivid and rather erudite way for a primary school. Deductions about motives, attitudes and conditions were easier when dealing with primitive man. Simple deductions and discussion also arose out of local history topics.'

Topics which provoked simple but effective argument in other schools included a comparison of Saxon and modern justice, and a study of the impact of oil-rig manufacture on an historic port. Constructive use of evidence was found in a number of schools where pupils used parish registers, census returns and associated materials to build up a picture of a parish over a period, including its changing

population size, birth-, death- and marriage-rates, epidemics, infant mortality, emigration and immigration, changing occupation patterns, area of social contacts, and incidence of literacy. They also devised their own research methods (rudimentary as they were) and argued from and about their results. It proved possible to develop children's appreciation of time, so that they could place events and artefacts in chronological sequence and compute time.

However, the topic approach which predominated in the majority of environmental studies schemes tends to militate against the acquisition of the basic historical skills and concepts. In some schools, the choice of topics was unorganized and random, and projects were undefined, unrelated to, or uncoordinated with, the rest of the work. In one instance, the same topic, involving copying from the same books, was repeated in three successive years with no substantial differences to match the children's development. Learning about the Spanish Armada, the Jarrow March, Lord Nelson, stage coaches, and prehistoric man, in that order, left the children in one school thoroughly confused about chronology. To be effective agents for learning, topics must obviously fit logically into a well-thought-out scheme of work, must further the subjects and disciplines in a structured way, and must advance the children's development. Most schemes concentrated on local and social history – both valuable resources creating good opportunities for descriptive writing and argument. Nevertheless, this concentration could be too narrow, and children also need to study political, constitutional and diplomatic history in national and world contexts. Some schools included these aspects by following the lives of local notables. One school, for example, followed up a single memorial plaque in a local Victorian church. It led them to nineteenth-century India, military campaigns, to the development of the railways, and to the work of the Church Missionary Society. Archives offices have a wealth of material on world history, slavery, trade in the Pacific, accounts of battle campaigns and of grand tours, most of them with unsuspected local connexions; they were all documented by one office and offered to schools. Exchanging local findings with schools in other parts of the country helps towards a national viewpoint and much valuable discussion arises about the differences discovered.

The emphasis

The emphasis tends to be on history as a self-contained entity in an environmental studies context, affected, perhaps, by the local, topic, mixed-ability approaches which are often associated with environmental work. For example, the geographical reasons for the communications patterns are often taught without reference to the historical factors, while the historian teaches the history of transport without reference to the geographical or scientific considerations. However, environmental studies are, by definition, an interdisciplinary approach. They can create excellent opportunities for the disciplines to help one another and to produce purposeful

integration, and there are schools where the pupils and staff derive great benefit from this.

One primary school, for example, used a neighbouring hill-fort for fieldwork in geography, botany and history for its top juniors. During a talk on geology in which the teacher had shown them the chalk cap of the hill and the spring-line well below the fort, one child asked the historical question, 'Where did they get their water from when there was a siege?' The fort had been professionally excavated, and when the children read the report they found no references to water tanks or reservoirs. A nearby hill-fort had a dewpond but none was found on this site. Some children questioned whether the water actually did seep through the chalk and found the answer by experiment. The realization that the main water supply was the river at the bottom of the hill, and that this was vulnerable in sieges, led to questions about methods of warfare and the children looked up translations of Caesar and Tacitus. A broader perspective was introduced when the children learnt that the legion which attacked their fort had been stationed in Jerusalem at the time of the crucifixion, and by their looking at the origins and migrations of their Celtic tribe and the distribution of hill-forts throughout Britain and Europe. An aerial photograph, taken in 1948 of a hill-fort in the Cameroons, introduced the children to anthropology. In all essentials, the fort was the same as the one they were studying with one major exception – it was modern, occupied, and a going concern. Thus science, geography and literature had all been used to answer historical questions. The history had used evidence, argument, narrative, a world view, and an awareness of change through time.

In another primary school, the children read that they could determine the numbers of centuries a hedge had been growing by counting the number of shrub species in thirty yards of hedgerow. Through discussion, helped by the teacher, they dated a surviving hedge by comparing a sequence of old maps. They then counted the shrub species but found too many. This led to a lively discussion on the reliability both of the initial hypothesis and of their own methods. Scientific thinking helped by geographical sources had helped to develop the children's assessment of evidence. Science and geology also helped one first-year class in a comprehensive school to unravel the sequence of the building of their parish church. When asked how they knew which parts were older than the others, some answered that the stone was more weathered. However, the older part of the church had been built with a harder stone than the later part, and tests showed that the later stone weathered more quickly than the earlier. These pupils thought much more deeply after that about the care needed in approaching evidence.

History, in its turn, can help the geographical and scientific elements of environmental studies. Teachers on an environmental studies course studied a village. The historian was able to trace and explain the changing settlement patterns of the past and so provide the geographers with clues for the modern pattern. He was also able to help the botanist by describing and locating the former

industries whose remains and waste heaps had determined the location and distribution of some local flora.

Safeguard essentials

To sum up the argument so far, the essentials of history can be safeguarded in environmental studies; history can be enhanced and also make a valuable contribution to environmental studies; and children can greatly benefit from well-devised schemes. Each school must, of course, devise its own environmental studies schemes but it might be useful to indicate some of the possible lines.

Two interrelated questions must be asked about content: 'What history is there around us?' and 'How did the environment of our ancestors differ and what wrought the changes?' There are some obvious answers to the first question – churches, historic buildings, industrial archaeology (offering tremendous scope for linking history with science and craft) – but there are some less obvious ones – for example, a pupil's own language and the food he eats. Open a dictionary almost at random and the history of England's invasions is apparent from the derivation of words – Latin, Saxon, Scandinavian, French. The inclusion of Arabic, Chinese and Indian words gives a world dimension which can be furthered by looking at language families. Similarly, the origins of place names and field names can be analysed and Celtic, Roman, Saxon and Scandinavian names can be traced on to a series of maps to indicate the settlement patterns of the different invaders (the geographers can help to explain these patterns).

Food, too, is a hidden source of history. Every schoolboy knows about Raleigh and the potato – but did Henry VIII know about lettuces, cucumbers and tomatoes? Some gardening books may give the dates of the introduction of various vegetables to this country. This approach is valuable in determining the diet of our ancestors. The second question, 'How did the environment of our ancestors differ and what wrought the changes?' is the object of much fascinating research at university level. However, there are aspects which children can tackle. Controversy rages over changing climate, but children can get hints from old diaries and letters, and they should know at least that the climate is changing. The flora, too, is changing. Guides to trees and flowers reveal that many species taken for granted as English were introduced from South America, China, Nepal and elsewhere from the sixteenth century onwards. Ransacking Shakespeare and medieval poetry will reveal the flowers and trees of medieval England. Here, too, the scientist can help. While pollen analysis is done by some sixth formers, it is beyond the scope of younger pupils. However, the pollen analysis charts, showing the incidence of plants on a time scale, can be interpreted by 10-year-olds to build up a description of the landscape at given periods. The fauna, too, is changing. Breeding policies have radically altered the shape and sizes of cattle, sheep and horses (as contemporary pictures show). The wild boar of medieval times has disappeared, and in the last century the wolf has gone from our countryside and the red

squirrel is being driven out by the grey. At the same time, wallabies and coypu, introduced in captivity, have escaped and are breeding in the wild, and coypu have been classified as pests. This work naturally leads on to world conservation issues; but it also shows the very different world in which our predecessors lived.

These, then, are some examples of the range of history that can be tackled in environmental studies with children in the middle years. But if such studies are to be successful, essentials must be identified and safeguarded and the work carefully planned.

Trends 1977/4

Geography and environmental studies

PETER THOMAS

HM Inspector, Wales, with special responsibility for geography

What is the essential contribution of geography to a balanced curriculum in the middle years? There are at least two ways of looking at this topic. The question of what has been the effect of the introduction of environmental studies upon the geographical knowledge and skills learned by pupils can be dealt with fairly briefly. There are obvious limitations in this, since the approach amounts to applying the criteria of a subject discipline to a deliberately interdisciplinary or integrated field of enquiry, but it is a perfectly reasonable question to ask where (as in nearly all schools involved in the survey) a simultaneous decision is made to include the one and to exclude the other.

The 1975–76 HMI survey of environmental studies in middle schools found that very few schools made any separate timetabled provision for geography. Where these arrangements persist to age 13, many pupils will have only one further year of geographical study (perhaps in a new school) before giving up the subject; unless the environmental studies programme is planned carefully, therefore, such pupils will be left with gaps in their knowledge and understanding of geography that may never be rectified. Indeed, in such cases, one of two assumptions has been made, overtly or by implication, by those responsible for curriculum planning: either that the learning which geography offers is relatively unimportant, or that

what is important is subsumed within other curricular areas. Either assertion obviously needs to be recognized and examined.

The evidence of the survey is not encouraging. Few schools, for example, have produced statements of the geographical ideas they intend to explore through environmental studies, and in many schemes, very few of the topics bear any 'geographical' significance, however the adjective is interpreted; indeed, in a few schools, the selection of topics for study is almost random. If the definition of environmental studies is a restricted one, the school may concentrate on local studies and direct experience to the exclusion of more 'distant', but nevertheless important, geographical topics (for example, contrasts in development, world distribution of population or mineral resources). Where the definition is more liberal, some ostensibly 'geographical' aspects may be included which are only of marginal 'environmental' relevance, and sometimes of limited geographical value. In one survey school, for example, 12-year-old pupils were compiling gazetteers of information on various EEC countries. Some of these criticisms reflect many teachers' uncertainty about what environmental studies is, and how it relates to disciplines such as geography.

Contribution to learning

But perhaps it is more important to tackle the more complex question of how geography can contribute to successful learning in environmental studies. In the last two decades, there has been a significant shift of emphasis in the subject, involving attempts to identify those recurrent spatial patterns, processes and interrelations that lead pupils towards a better and increasing understanding of the complexity of the real world. The description of the unique characteristics of particular places and regions is now of much less significance, although the places and regions remain important as sources of illustration for the recurrent ideas. Certain factual knowledge is essential for this development of conceptual understanding. For example, to understand something of the factors that have influenced the relative growth, decline or stagnation of the ports in South Wales, pupils need some knowledge of patterns of industrial development in the region, the location of world sources of certain raw materials (especially iron ore and crude oil), and the configuration of the land surface and the coastline.

The content of individual studies should enhance the pupil's understanding of man's social, political and economic activities, his natural or physical environment, and the ways in which he has reacted to, modified, and shaped his environment. The material selected will vary with the age of the pupil and from year to year, but might be expected to include studies of landforms, population, towns and cities, settlement patterns, agriculture, manufacturing, transport, and the use of leisure and natural resources. These help to illustrate the influence of events in one area of the world on societies elsewhere, and the increasing interdependence of man in widely scattered and

often diverse areas of the world. Such enquiries, drawing upon a careful selection of world locations on an appropriate variety of scales (from local to world wide), provide examples of significant political, social and economic processes and influences in action.

A wide selection of resources is now available in the form of books, large- and small-scale maps and atlases, photographs and pictures, plans, statistics (for example, of industrial production and population), slides, films and filmstrips, newspapers and magazines, as well as the observations and measurements resulting from pupils' field-work. The use of such a range of resources offers opportunities for pupils, over a period of time, to develop the skills of selection, observation, recording, interpretation and analysis, and thereby to acquire a vivid and comprehensible image of the people and places being studied.

It is the vital task of the teacher to lead the child forward from observation and description towards analysis and interpretation, and to help him use the understanding gained to investigate further areas of more complex content. This must be the heart of the educational process for a child studying geography.

Considerable overlap

It is not surprising to find a considerable overlap in the content, skill development, and teaching approach in the stated intentions of many geography and environmental studies schemes. Both fields are, after all, largely empirical in nature, and the quality of the educational activities they generate will depend heavily upon properly conducted enquiry based mainly upon scientific methodology. Although it would be irresponsible to claim that the approaches to geography outlined above are now standard practice in this country, it is important to recognize the greatly increased rigour and progression that now characterize the best school geography. This is not to compare (unfairly) the best work in geography with a full spectrum of environmental studies, nor indeed to claim a monopoly or preponderance of excellence for either approach. It is precisely because geography offers so rich a source of valid generalization and the development of rational understanding that the subject can contribute so generously to environmental studies. Of course, geography is only one source of such insights,* but it is a highly significant one which it would be foolish to ignore.

It was encouraging to find one primary school where the head-teacher's written schemes suggested practical ways in which central ideas such as 'the significance of settlement location' and 'the importance of beauty as well as utility' could be exploited in the various case studies and field-work undertaken. This had led one class of 10-year-olds to investigate alternative routes for a proposed local by-pass; the pupils had prepared a questionnaire which they had discussed with parents and neighbours and among themselves,

* See, for example, *Environmental Education: A Statement of Aims*. National Association for Environmental Education, 1976.

and were working in groups to present the relative merits of alternative schemes. The resulting oral dialogue (greatly aided by sensitive and well-timed intervention by the teacher) and the written work revealed the advantageous influence on pupils' language development of reaching forward to grasp, handle and speculate on fresh ideas. Three middle schools in the survey had prepared similar written suggestions with similarly beneficial effects on the pupils' work.

In many other schools, the emphasis of the work was very largely descriptive with few attempts by the pupils to make deductions or generalizations based on the material being studied. In particular, where pupils are working on their own or in groups, the teacher's role may be limited to management and class control, coupled with helping individual pupils over specific difficulties, and may largely exclude any planned discussion with pupils to establish and confirm understanding, and to stimulate analysis and the drawing of conclusions. For example, in one primary school, two 10-year-old pupils, who were pursuing investigations under the term's topic of 'water', had been collecting material on ocean currents; despite the time and energy devoted to this activity, however, they had no understanding of the idea of the circulation of water in the ocean, nor of the difference between warm and cold currents, the two main features depicted by the map. In this school and in others, the main recorded result of an outside visit or excursion was a collection of narrative accounts of the day's proceedings. These are, of course, some of the worst examples, but there is a widespread failure by pupils in many schools to explore the significance of the material studied, and in particular, in the later middle years, to apply the understanding so gained to new situations.

The failure to penetrate new subject matter beyond the descriptive level can result in underattainment by many pupils. For example, one fairly typical fieldwork exercise is a traffic survey conducted at some busy junction of roads. Commonly, the results are translated into histograms showing variation in flow over time and proportional radial representation showing the volume of traffic on the various routes, displayed or mounted with varying degrees of aesthetic sensitivity, and accompanied by descriptive writing which does little more than translate the visual representation into words. All too rarely are the data analysed to the point where children can make general statements about the daily flow patterns. Nor do children very often analyse the types and origin of traffic, relate this information to the pattern of congestion, and evaluate specific proposals for long- or short-term improvement in the light of the understanding they have gained. Moreover, it is not unknown to find similar data (for example, traffic, shopping and land-use surveys) being represented and handled in a similar way at much the same intellectual level at several different points in the middle years' age span, occasionally within the same school. Where this happens, it is hard to accept that adequate attention has been paid to the need to ensure progression and an increasing understanding as the pupils mature.

Mapwork

The skills associated with mapwork are probably the aspect of geography that figures most prominently in environmental studies schemes. The findings of the first phase of the survey are not untypical: in seven of the twelve middle schools, for example, some kind of deliberate attention was given to mapwork in the written scheme, although in two of the schools this did not extend beyond scale, direction and the recognition of symbols. This still left nearly half the middle schools and all except one of the primary schools without any planned introduction to mapping skills, although pupils might meet mapwork incidentally (or not at all) according to the demands of particular projects. In one middle school, examples of the local map on three different scales formed an excellent display which had also been made into a set of transparencies used for class demonstration, and a set of mounted local 1:25,000 sheets was available for each year group for fieldwork.

Often, however, the mapwork undertaken by pupils is limited to exercises in specific techniques, taught mainly in isolation (for example, grid references, symbols, direction, scale, cross-sections, intervisibility); it is less common to find maps used in conjunction with other evidence (for example, aerial photographs) in the analysis of locations or distributions and the factors influencing them.

Suggestions for improvement

What suggestions can be made for improvement? In the early middle years, in schools undertaking environmental studies, it is rare to find either the time or a specific scheme of work deliberately provided for geography. The subject is likely to make its major contribution within enquiry-based approaches to topics of interest, often involving visits in the immediate locality and the use of a range of source material to develop pupils' powers of observation, interpretation, and linguistic expression. Indeed, the main aims of this type of activity are to develop study and linguistic skills and to foster a spirit of enquiry in the pupils, rather than to ensure the acquisition and understanding of any body of knowledge or range of specific concepts. Although it is difficult to accept that there is no definable content which children should have met by the age of 11, the general emphasis seems sensible enough. What is essential, however, is that the topics selected for study illustrate a rich range of patterns and processes which the pupils are capable of comprehending.

For example, a class may look at a small harbour in North Wales that formerly exported slate. It is not hard to think of ways of keeping the pupils busy: activities might include mapping the current use or disuse of buildings, noting road access and evidence of former railways and wharves, estimating tidal fall, delimiting on the map the area exposed at low tide, or holiday or tourist facilities, and so on. Back in the classroom, there are obvious opportunities for pupils to examine old pictures, documents and maps, and to begin to describe the changes that have occurred. But suppose the teacher can perceive a simple geographical idea: that the growth of a port

is affected by its harbour and the nature of its hinterland, that the fortunes of a port are frequently bound up with those of the hinterland and the network of communications that connects them. The general principle may be clear only in the teacher's mind, but used sensitively it can suggest the significant questions: When did the railway open and close? When did the last warehouse close? During which period was the port at its busiest? When did some of the major quarries open and close? These now lead on to the more extended discussion: How did the opening of the railway affect the port's trade? Why were the last quarries to open often the first to close? Are the graphs of slate production and export tonnage largely identical or are there significant differences? Soon the geographical idea is being extended into an historical context, and the pupils are calling on the evidence of documents, maps and, perhaps, the recollections of older residents. Moreover, the seed of an important idea has been sown; it can be developed later, for example, in examining the development of major ports, and extended in scope through the study of examples of movements of certain kinds of industry from the hinterland to harbourside locations.

To achieve such an approach, of course, needs planning. One way of doing this is through a written or tabulated topic guide, noting intentions under headings such as content, ideas, visits, resources, and study skills. There is also much to be said for some degree of coherence in the overall structure of topics pursued so that pupils can perceive some clear pattern in their studies. It seems important, too, that the terms of reference for the topic are discussed in detail with the pupils and that the nature, location and availability of the resources are carefully explained and introduced.

Progression

It is important that the work planned for pupils in the later middle years should show a progression from the standards achieved earlier. Since only a small sample of the potential content has been dealt with already, a serious effort now needs to be made to ensure that pupils are introduced to an appropriate range of principles which can be revisited and developed at progressively more complex and precise levels as the pupils mature. From the geographical viewpoint, a convenient check list can be compiled from the commonly accepted systematic divisions, with one or two key general ideas identified under each of these headings. These might be concerned, for example, with factors affecting the location of industry, or land-use patterns within urban areas.

The middle school offers particularly exciting opportunities for developing this kind of progression. During the early years, for example, pupils may visit a farm, record its activities and draw some simple conclusions about the way in which the farmer's choice is affected by his natural environment (for example, some crops thrive, others could be grown but – from choice – are not, others could not be grown at all, for reasons of climate or topography). Later the pupils may perhaps return to the idea and fill out their knowledge of

the range of factors affecting the farmers' choice. Towards the upper end of the age span, the scene may shift to two specimen farms set in similar physical environments where, for various reasons (political, economic or sometimes personal), man's response has been different.

The later middle years may thus be characterized by a clearer structure and an element of planned progression in the understanding of key ideas. Planning is not based upon content: such an approach would be doomed to failure. Nor does planning proceed directly from highly abstract concepts such as interrelationship, pattern, location, or communication: on their own these are of little help to a teacher in suggesting what content to select and what emphases to develop. An approach based on the grouping of key ideas or generalizations under certain headings lies somewhere between these extremes. This would preserve coverage of an appropriate range of content while the ideas themselves are expressions of how the more abstract concepts interrelate to constitute principles which help the pupil make sense of his world. Because the generalizations are widely applicable, the syllabus planner is not tied to specific content areas. On the contrary, they can be adapted to provide added meaning and significance in the presentation of a wide range of themes or subjects of enquiry, provided these are chosen with reasonable care. This is especially important in environmental studies, since such themes must exploit the potential of disciplines other than geography. Finally, the development of language or study skills, such as observation and interpretation, and of social skills, such as the ability to cooperate with others (all these are common to most aspects of environmental studies) are greatly enhanced because pupils are applying and developing them in analysing situations where the underlying rational connexions are present and capable of being disengaged, understood, and ultimately applied.

Many secondary schools have the advantage of being able to provide a team of two or more teachers in environmental studies, in most cases timetabled simultaneously with several teaching groups. This is a helpful arrangement where the members of the team genuinely possess between them a variety of specialist knowledge and skill, and this will often (though, regrettably, not always) include a geographer. It is, however, important to ensure that there is some means of ensuring that the total programme benefits from the specialist expertise of all the team members. This may take the form of regular meetings of the team addressed by the respective specialists, team participation in syllabus planning, clear, written statements of the teaching programme (including objectives linked to content and resources, preferably in tabular form), appropriate exchanges of teacher and class, and some key lessons prepared and taken by specialists. Only rarely is full advantage taken of such arrangements.

The introduction of environmental studies in the middle years is a response to one or more of a whole range of factors, only some of which are concerned with the rationale of either environmental studies or the separate subjects which it usually replaces. This is only one reason why there is little to be gained by taking up entrenched

positions about the way in which a school curriculum is divided. Geography has a vital contribution to make to the education of pupils in the middle years. It is not in any way disabling if this has to be made within environmental studies; indeed, in some respects the scope is greater. But quality of learning will only be preserved through careful and detailed planning based on a firm understanding of what geography has to offer.

Trends 1977/4

Science and environmental studies

ARTHUR CLEGG

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A teacher of a class in the 8–13 age group, whether a specialist scientist or a class teacher, is faced with a difficult problem when environmental studies appears on the timetable. The Green Paper, *Education in Schools*, published by the DES in July 1977, clearly states that 'science should find a secure place for all pupils at least to the age of 16'. In secondary schools, where the subject environmental studies occurs, then science is usually an additional subject. However, in some schools there is a subject called environmental science that can be presented for examination. In middle schools and junior schools, environmental studies frequently occurs as a separate subject in the absence of science.

The teacher is therefore presented with a situation that needs clarification. There is an established need for empirical study; but is it equally well served by a number of subject areas or do some subjects have something more to offer than a training in empirical methods of study? History, geography, environmental studies and science are all based on asking questions about real events and situations, on seeking answers by making observations, on looking for trends, sequences and patterns, on suggesting hypotheses to cover the observable data, and, finally, on checking the hypotheses by recourse to further observations. History and geography use this empirical (scientific) method. Does a scientific study do anything different?

Science in environmental studies

With all these difficulties in mind, HMI visited middle schools that were known to teach environmental studies to see how they had tackled the problems of science in that context. They looked for a clear statement of aims and for teaching schemes that set out clearly the content of lessons and the outcomes in terms of skills such as observation, pattern seeking, the making of hypotheses, the capacity to design and carry out experiments, to communicate results and thoughts, and to seek application in the world outside science or environmental studies lessons. They were also interested in whether the studies were appropriate to the individual pupils in the classes.

There is obviously a difference in the subject matter of history, geography, and science, but perhaps the salient feature of science is its inclusion of experiment. When the hypothesis has been constructed in a scientific study, it is tested not merely by making further observations but by doing so in a situation contrived by the scientist, so that ideally only the factor that is being explored is changing. Take, for example, the problem of a dangerous hill on the outskirts of a town – the scene of many accidents involving heavy lorries over the past thirty years. The historian, the geographer and the scientist might look at the problem very differently; the historian would undoubtedly look at newspaper records to establish the facts about the number of accidents each year and their consequences, and perhaps relate this to the growing size of industry in the town. The geographer would observe the route of the road, the gradient, and the size and loads of vehicles, and perhaps point out that in ten other similar situations in other towns there were similar danger spots. The scientist might take the view that the nature of the road surface was responsible and that in the heat of summer and the frozen depths of winter the surface did not provide enough grip for tyres. Experiments could be performed to attempt to modify the road surface, perhaps by rolling in more granite chips to see if this would increase the tyres' grip, both in winter and in summer. Before tons of chips were rolled into the road surface, extensive tests would be done on a smaller scale. In the model, the twists and turns in the road would be kept constant, as would the gradient, the weight and speed of the vehicles, the type of tyres, and so on; only the number of granite chips would be changed. All the possible, known factors involved would be appropriately scaled down to model size and only the nature of the surface would be allowed to vary. If one type of surface appeared to be best, then a natural scale test on the actual road might be tried. It is this characteristic of devising the experiment to test the hypothesis that is the main difference between scientific and other studies.

Using the information about tyres and road surfaces to reduce the accident rate might well involve knowledge from many disciplines – for example, economics, the life style of the community. In short, an appreciation of the total environment is needed before a sensible decision can be taken. This is the field of environmental studies where evidence from many aspects of the problem has to be weighed.

Question to be resolved

The question that the curriculum planner and the class teacher must ultimately resolve is whether the time available for empirical studies in school should be spent on looking at real-life problems, using soundly made observations and clear thinking drawn from many traditional disciplines, or whether, in the 8–13 age range, the time would be better spent in laying the foundations of knowledge, ideas, and thought processes of traditional disciplines such as history, geography and science.

If the intention of the July 1977 Green Paper is to be followed, and science is to find a secure place in the curriculum, should it be science for action in the context of current life problems, or should it be science that enables the young pupil to think like a scientist and to understand some of the major ideas of science? This is not an easy decision. Environmental problems are often too sophisticated to be tackled by pupils of this age range. Take, for example, the lorry on the hill – the concepts involved in rotational friction between tyres and road surfaces in all weathers are too difficult for the pupils. There is no simple solution.

The environmental context

If the scientific concepts are to come from topical environmental problems, the syllabus will have to be changed annually, and it will differ from town to town. Providing scientific apparatus to perform experiments would be a costly business if the requirements were always changing. Science teachers would have to spend a great deal of time in designing and trying out investigations whose results would be meaningful to pupils.

Many teachers of science for pupils in the 8–13 age range are non-specialist teachers and it would be asking too much to demand that they constantly devise new apparatus and read about new fields of knowledge. If we are to encourage teachers, especially non-specialists in science, to undertake scientific studies with all their pupils, it would be easier if the area of knowledge were prescribed and the progression of ideas and skills, from the simpler to the more difficult, were delineated.

Some examples of good practice

A good example of a checklist of knowledge was seen in one junior school surveyed, where the first year was devoted to living things in their surroundings, the second year to non-living things (time, solar system, the dependence of living things on air, water, soil), the third year to man and his environment (fossils, evolution, early man), and the fourth year to man and his social environment (wood, stone, metal, different environments—for example, seaside, fresh water). This scheme of work was written out for the pupils and staff and the page was illustrated by attractive line drawings. The skills to be learned and the ideas to be understood were also clearly stated; for example, for the 8-year-olds, in the topic of non-living things,

observation, discussion, collection and classification, the use of compass directions, the use of maps, objective recording, and artists' impressions were the skills to be learned. Some of the ideas to be learned were: 'a measurement of time is imposed by the earth's rotation and the seasons are caused by its orbit round the sun'; 'all energy on earth is provided by the sun'; 'three things which affect the environment are the ground beneath it, the weather around it, and the living things in it'. The thinking behind this scheme and the discussion which had created it had provided a sound framework within which the teachers could work, thus giving them a sense of security and also an opportunity for progression in the children's work.

HMI came across a good example of pupils' observation in one middle school where the teacher had asked pupils to look at a variety of leaf shapes, among which were nettles. The pupils were interested in the nettle's ability to sting. They discovered that older nettles had a different stinging power from the younger leaves. These children made observations other than of the shape of leaves to investigate the questions raised in their own minds. It is this ability to frame questions and to make relevant observations which is the basis of science, and the wise teacher should listen to the pupils and encourage them. Sadly, in too many cases the pupils were over-directed to look for specific things in which the teacher was interested, and this prevented them from learning to ask their own questions and to select appropriate observations.

The ability to detect patterns, trends, sequences, and correlations between operating factors and to generalize from the particular was a relatively weak feature of the work seen. In one school, pupils discovered the relationship between barometric pressure and recorded wind speed in the school weather station, while others discovered the relationship between the time of swing and the length of a home-made pendulum. Some junior children found that the number of bees returning to an observation hive varied with the weather. The classification of rocks and insects provided examples of grouping objects into sets with common attributes. Mathematical recording using histograms, charts, and scattergrams often made the patterns visible for the pupils. The ability to detect patterns depends on the capacity to observe some regularity or discontinuity in the world around, or to perceive a common property in a set of otherwise dissimilar things, or on the way in which an attribute (for example, weight), might vary in relation to another property (for example, size). When observations become quantitative and can thereby have numbers and units attached to them, it is easier to detect the pattern, particularly if the results are collected in a systematic way in charts. Once the pattern is detected, the pupil can ask a lot of questions and make suggestions about possible causes.

One group of 11-year-old pupils in a middle school tested their predictions by experiment. Doubtful that Morning Glory flowers lasted for only one day, they suggested tying orange coloured wool around those flowers they thought would be dead on the next day

and purple wool around the buds they expected to flower. On the next day, all the marked flowers were dead and three of the five buds had flowered. Another group of four pupils in a top junior class watched insects walking on the underside of the water surface in an aquarium and were challenged to see if they could demonstrate the existence of some sort of skin on the water. They attached a flat sheet of metal to a spring balance and pulled the metal through the surface from the water into the air, predicting that as it passed through the surface the 'skin' would appear to drag the plate back into the water and that this would stretch the spring balance. Many pupils between the age of 10 and 12 have the inherent capacity to devise such experiments, but they are not often offered the opportunity to do so in school.

Some implications from the survey

It is uncommon, and seemingly difficult, to integrate scientific studies with historical and geographical aspects in one subject called environmental studies, especially for pupils in the 11–13 age range. The three secondary schools in the sample of twenty-four schools (1975 survey) taught science separately. In middle schools, the person teaching science and other environmental studies may be the same person, but only in one middle school in the sample were strong links between scientific and other environmental studies evident. The junior schools demonstrated that it is possible to attempt an integration but in most cases this was found to be difficult. A common situation in the 8–13 age range is a progressive differentiation from topic work with an environmental basis at the younger end, to a curriculum in which science emerges as a separate study by the age of 13.

A good standard in science, whether environmentally based or not, is commonly associated with encouraging pupils to seek for patterns. Other factors are a clear statement of the concepts and abilities to be developed, and an opportunity for pupils to observe and experiment for themselves with, perhaps, not quite so much direction by the teacher after the problem has been clarified, and with more emphasis on the discussion of ideas orally rather than on written work alone.

The role and style of teachers is most important. They must plan activities so as to stimulate the pupils' imagination and develop their skill at posing questions that push pupils past the point of mere observation into clarification, the perception of patterns, the design of experiments, and, perhaps urge them to suggest some explanations.

Feeling competent

During a DES short course on environmental study in the middle years, held in Durham in 1976, it became apparent that few teachers felt competent about teaching all of the historical, geographical and scientific aspects of environmental studies. There are several possible ways of interrelating the three subjects by what has been called 'building bridges across the curriculum', but all depend upon each

teacher expressing his intentions clearly so that the whole team is aware of what is happening. Schemes of work must be written down so that they can be read by teachers of all subjects, whether specialists or general class teachers. Specialists might act as consultants to colleagues trained in other disciplines.

When each teacher has written down his particular contribution to the pupils' curriculum, the statements can be read alongside one another, areas of overlap or mutual support can be looked for, and, possibly, the teaching sequence in any particular subject can be modified in the interest of the pupils' better understanding of the whole. A geographical topic on settlement might have an historical 'blister' or scientific 'blister' attached to it, or a scientific topic might be supported by the other two, and so on. Sometimes the three studies might be linked into a meaningful whole not through content but by making explicit the role of reliance on observable data, or the role of hypothesis testing as a way of thinking.

The exercise is worth attempting, if only because it focuses attention on the learning package being presented to the child at any one stage. If each teacher knows about the whole package, then knowledge and attitudes from other lessons can be referred to, thus helping the pupil to consolidate the knowledge gained from one area of the curriculum with that gained from another. If the message contained in the Schools Council 9–13 document is to be believed,* as many teachers as possible must attempt to see the whole curriculum through the eyes of the pupils. It is the view of many science teachers that the pupil may profit more from associating scientific studies with humanities projects or environmental studies in this way, rather than by integrating history, geography and science totally into environmental studies. In the sample of middle schools in this small survey, only one had reached a good standard of scientific skills through environmental studies. If this scientific component of environmental studies is the pupils' only experience of science, then most pupils would leave the middle school disadvantaged in their scientific knowledge and behaviour, compared with pupils who had pursued a separate science course. The fact that some schools have shown that it is possible to achieve a high level of scientific skill through teaching science in the context of environmental studies shows that it can be a worthwhile approach. However, the fact that so few of these schools allow their pupils to reach a good scientific standard is cause for concern.

We owe it to all pupils to teach them science and to develop their awareness of the environment. Perhaps we should all look at the ideas, attitudes and thinking skills in our science courses to see which of them could equally well be developed by starting from important facets in the world around us. If science is to be a component of every pupil's education, let us ensure that it helps them to understand and operate in their world.

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* Ross, A. M., Razzell, A. G., Badcock, E. H. *The Curriculum in the Middle Years*. Schools Council Working Paper 55. Evans/Methuen Educational, 1975.

School Governors: The Taylor Report

In December 1974 we published an article, 'Reforming school governors', by Anne Corbett; in June 1975 we published R. T. Spooner's reply, 'Leave the governors alone'. Since then the Taylor Report on the government and management of schools has appeared. The editors recently invited Anne Corbett and R. T. Spooner to give their reactions to the Taylor Report. In this issue we publish their personal views.

Trends 1977/4

Taylor: where angels fear to tread

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The title of the Taylor Report, *A New Partnership for our Schools*, sets the tone for the whole document. The Report is built round the belief that if you bring together the 'interested parties', they will work together for mutual advantage – just as MPs work together harmoniously for the good of the country and the Labour Party National Executive for the good of the Party! Indeed, there seems to be no recognition that management is about power, no clear definition of where power will lie, and no anticipation of any clash of interest.

And yet, although it is written in the customary suave style of educational reports with the emphasis on the positive, the Report is overtly an attack on the powers presently exercised by head-teachers. The most significant parts of the Report instruct the new governing bodies to oblige heads to present a series of documents describing in detail the internal organization of the school, its objectives, its disciplinary procedures, and its curriculum arrangements. Tacitly they are expected to vet these arrangements and to alter them if they think fit. Indeed, they are required to see that some machinery exists for the head to consult with staff, supporting staff, parents, and pupils. It is nowhere stated that the head must take the advice he receives, but if he doesn't the various 'partners' are urged, almost provocatively, to voice their discontents to the governors. Indeed, the Committee are intent on giving the governors powers which most heads have already delegated, and in this sense it is a retreat to authoritarianism.

A clear relationship

At present, the *de facto* position is that teachers see the head as the boss, and he in turn accepts the chief education officer (CEO) in that role and recognizes his ultimate accountability to the education committee, the council and the electorate. In practice, CEOs give heads support, loyalty and freedom of action. In return, they receive loyalty and cooperation from heads. It is a clean and clear relationship. Most existing governing bodies accept this situation and, although interested in the school, look outwards, seeking to influence the education committee on behalf of the school. The politicians in the majority party can be particularly helpful in this respect.

On appointment, a head undertakes a position of trust and he will prosper only if he is trusted. He assumes responsibilities and is given the necessary powers to fulfil them. Any worthwhile head appreciates that power wantonly used becomes tyranny and most heads barter power for influence. Usually it is delegated and disseminated throughout the staff so that decisions are made by the people who will feel their impact. This is not only good managerial practice, it is practical democracy. Indeed, it involves sensitivity to consumer needs. But the head's powers remain latent and he exercises his judgement as to what he surrenders and to whom.

The worst feature of the Taylor Report is that much of it is built round a distrust of the head; it explicitly takes away from him the powers that by custom he has exercised, although it appears to leave him with the same responsibilities. Stanley Baldwin remarked that power without responsibility has been the prerogative of the harlot throughout the ages. Responsibility without power is, I submit, the prerogative of the eunuch. It is a recipe for stress and dissatisfaction. It is most odd that the proposed far-reaching constitutional changes should be so influenced by the supposed existence of bad head-teachers, when their success is utterly dependent on the 'partners' overflowing with sweetness and light, and when, in a phrase which reads uncommonly like hypocrisy, the Committee concedes 'that the success of the new governing bodies will depend to a large extent on the effectiveness of the head's contribution to their deliberations and actions'.

Looked at from a head's point of view, whole sections of the Report read like a job description in which his duties are outlined. Indeed, the malign influence of industrial management is very apparent. The supposition is that those heads who already undertake extensive consultation of their own free will, will continue to do so with sustained enthusiasm and that the others will be obliged to become converts. This is the flaw in the theory. Techniques of staff consultation should grow out of day-to-day need if they are to be valid; blueprints imposed by authority are doomed to become a meaningless exercise. In dealing with teachers at any level, one needs to win their hearts and minds, for their capacity to circumvent dictation is inexhaustible. The attempt to instruct heads how to behave is not only doomed to failure but is deeply insulting. In fact, the liberal and progressive head will resent coercion more fiercely

even than his authoritarian counterpart. To pursue my metaphor, one does not have to be promiscuous to resist castration. And job descriptions that make detailed demands tend to produce a response strictly limited to what is demanded.

Change of relationship

More than anything else, I deplore the change of relationships that may result. That between a head and the chief education officer clearly disappears, for just as the head's powers are usurped by the governors, so is the chief education officer's role. The governors become the direct boss. The head's relationship with staff, parents and pupils is muddled. He may be obliged to remind a teacher-governor that he is neglecting his duties and almost in the same breath canvas his support for item three on the agenda. I view this prospect with some distaste. Recently I was told by a supporter of the proposals that he had no doubt that I would 'handle' the new governing body successfully. It was a sneer wrapped in a compliment, in the fashion of the poor-calibre inspector. But why should I, in order to run a school successfully, have to stoop to manipulation? And inasmuch as it was a compliment, it implies that this ability will not prove commonplace. A lot of heads will need training in managing the governors. Can we expect future applicants for headships to have their diplomas in sycophancy – with credits for ingratiation?

And then the constitutional position of the new governing body leaves something to be desired. It derives its powers from the education committee, yet in its constitution is independent of that body. It retains responsibility for such things as the fabric of the building and repair and maintenance, while being dependent on the education committee for funds in this respect. In practice, most heads would be glad to pass on their frustrations to a potentially virile body. It is a nice thought that in an authority with 400 schools there could be 4,000 new governors, all entitled to badger officials if decorating programmes falter and maintenance money runs out. I expect the skills of corporate management would cope with this stimulus!

There are cynics who believe that, irrespective of widespread teacher disapproval, this Report will be adopted simply because it will cost little to implement. But the cheapness of its proposals should not be taken for granted. If the meetings are centrally serviced the cost will be considerable. Assuming two meetings and two appointments a term, a total of twelve hours of officer time in attendance is a modest estimate. At least the same number of hours will be required to prepare the meetings. This means that one officer will be needed for every fifteen schools, and rather more than twenty-six officers in a city the size of Leeds. This will cost perhaps £120,000 per year, even if nothing extra is paid for unsocial hours. Then a postal election for parent-governors requiring three letters will cost perhaps £1 per child. And one accepts that postal ballots will be necessary. In one of our major cities a meeting convened to nominate a parent-governor in a school of over 1,900

pupils attracted just six parents, representing four children. I fear that parental eagerness for the governor franchise will not drive them in worthwhile numbers either to meetings or to the ballot box. For my part, I would not grudge the time and money if I thought that more good than harm would come from the proposal. But the Taylor Committee make a rash assumption if they think that all the new governing bodies will consist of 'do-gooders' (though many might think that bad enough!). There will be 'do-harmers' also there, with their own special axes to grind. The mix may prove lethal and certainly many of the governors' meetings will become a battle-ground for conflicting ideologies. I wish that the Taylor Committee had made it clear just how they see 'parent-power'. Do they imagine that there is a definable parental interest that can be represented and that the parents elected will in fact be representative? In a social priority school with two-thirds of the children by the standards laid down by 'born to fail', deprived, how does one ensure that four of the six parents have proper qualifications – a broken marriage and intermittent dependence on social security? Might they not, depressingly, all turn out in the Anne Corbett mould? Is there not in fact a prototype 'governor-parent' willing and able to spend hours on committee work, actually enjoying it, who is wholly unlike and unrepresentative of the mass of parents? And do not all the difficult issues in schools arise from a class of pupil interest? As someone who attaches the utmost importance to parental support and cooperation, I do not consider that this governing structure will in any way advance that cause.

As for teachers, their powers are plainly diminished by the arrangement. Only if they wish to pursue policies in conflict with the head have they anything to gain. Those at present content with the influence they wield must be prepared to give up a lot of time and energy just to preserve it. Why should they be expected to? Yet if they don't the field will be clear for those who base their educational philosophy on an extreme political stance.

It surprises me that the Taylor Committee fail to make their position clear on the issues of pupil power. They set up a structure that might well have been designed by the National Union of School Students yet nowhere define the democratic rights of pupils. Is the object of the exercise to teach them how to handle power, or to introduce them to the frustrations of purely consultative democracy? I favour the development of pupil councils as part of an educational process, but how it is done and on what terms is a matter for sensitive handling and professional expertise. The subtle links between privilege and responsibility are best left to pragmatic adult judgement.

So is the link between constitutional forms and reality. Recently a primary school teacher told me how she had campaigned for a staff meeting and after much persistence one was called. One motion was carried. By nine votes to four it was agreed that no more staff meetings should be held. 'Are you not prepared,' I asked, 'to accept a democratic decision?' 'That,' she pronounced vehemently, 'is not my

idea of democracy!' Nor is it the Taylor Committee's. They lay down willy-nilly what is good democratic practice. The staff will be consulted, the head must be a governor, he can't be chairman, nor can a member of staff (and in this respect they enjoy maimed rights). The governors are circumscribed; they must appoint all staff; they must meet at least twice a term; even their views are prescribed. They must, for instance, narrow the gap between schools and the wealth-producing sector of the economy! Indeed, the Committee seem to fear that the bodies they set up may, in a flurry of goodwill, offer the head the same trust that he has traditionally enjoyed. So the Report achieves the difficult feat of being both trendy and illiberal.

A great pity

It is a great pity, for some of the Committee's aims are admirable. Relationships with parents, supporting staff and pupils need improvement in many schools. It is the method and approach that is so misconceived. However, some good may be salvaged from the Report, even though most teachers and LEAs reject it. It might be useful to set up the 'partnership' in a purely advisory capacity. In most schools it could grow out of the existing parent-teacher set-up. The addition of pupils and interested local worthies might produce something of value and the Report's broad 'communication' policies would make a useful model for schools. It would also be nice to have a team of parent-governors visiting those in their 'constituency' who condone truancy and fail to come to parent-teacher consultations!

But the responsibility for the good running of the school must remain with the head, and he should remain accountable to his CEO. This approach, though less dramatic, might do more good than the Report's bizarre attempt to legislate for human relationships, and redistribute power with smooth phrases, masked by noble aspirations that are deficient in political insight and realism.

Trends 1977/4

Taylor: Two cheers for democracy

ANNE CORBETT

Educational journalist

Why revive school governors? The answers must turn on whether there is a job for them to do; and more important still, whether they are better placed to do the job than any other body.

The ink and the energy spent on those questions in the last six or seven years has resulted in the Taylor Committee's devoting fifty or sixty well-illustrated pages to the first question, but only five

lines to the second. Not, one would think, the best way of impressing those whose powers Taylor challenges: headteachers who have had the often gratifying experience of running schools very much in their own way, and local education authorities who see established practice threatened.

As it has turned out, Taylor is the 'busybodies' charter', according to the headteacher-dominated National Union of Teachers. Taylor is the 'administrators' nightmare', say the officials foreseeing the reports that will have to be written if half a million governors start 'discussing, debating and justifying' a school's organization in the manner that Taylor suggests.

Taylor neither tackles this predictable opposition, not does it deal directly with Peter Fulton's powerfully argued minority report which concludes that it is irrelevant to create thousands of more powerful governing bodies when the continuing shortage of resources, the fall in the birthrate, and the problems of youth unemployment, make it more and more difficult for schools to act as individual units.

Fulton is not quite fair because Taylor is talking about school government within a framework of local or national policy. But for all that, Taylor merely says that all schools should have their own governing bodies to make decisions about how the school is run because 'of the need to ensure that the school is run with as full an awareness as possible of the wishes and feelings of the parents and the local community, and, conversely, to ensure that these groups are, in their turn, better informed of the needs of the school, and the policies and constraints within which the local education authority operates and the head and other teachers work'. This requires a 'working partnership' giving staff, parents and the local community an equal part with the local education authority.

Low-key argument

I am sorry that the argument is so low key. For implicit in the proposals that follow is the constructive and dynamic idea that a body representing the various school interests is well placed to respond to such crises as Fulton portrays, and in a way that teachers or administrators on their own cannot. The four groups are four quarters of a whole. 'No one interest group should play a dominant role.' In that single sentence Taylor sweeps away the tired notion of the governing body as yet another rung in the ladder of educational administration. In its place is a model for the participatory notions which nationally the political parties know they can no longer ignore: an expression of how initiative can, within the framework of local policy, be extended to those most closely concerned.

Concern over the curriculum

It is no coincidence that public concern over what is going on in schools has mounted in recent years, as teachers and local education authorities have shown themselves unable to allay even unjustified

fears. This applies particularly to the curriculum and to standards where there has been no mechanism for even knowing what is going on.

Other countries solve the problem by having a nationally defined curriculum. The education ministry writes the programmes and the inspectors go round to enforce them. In England it may yet come to that and it would not be an unmitigated disaster. It would, however, be a brutal wrench with a tradition which gives teachers an incentive to innovate and develop, and which respects some diversity in schools.

As a result of the Green Paper, *Education in Schools*, and its request to local education authorities to review school curricula and to define a core, it is already certain that the curriculum is moving towards some form of public control. Taylor's merit is to define an English way of making the curriculum public: a measure of accountability, while still respecting a strong teacher tradition.

Taylor's examples show this clearly. Take its suggestions about how a school might change from a streamed to a mixed ability organization. The headteacher should hold discussions with the teachers, and should prepare for the governing body a statement of the educational and social reasons for making the change. This should contain information about who would be affected, the time scale, and the consequences: for example, what would the remedial department have to do, what would be the arrangements for public examination courses. The headteacher should also describe the staffing and resource implications, and how the change could be introduced. There should be some agreement as to how the effects might be monitored. The governing body, would probably want to consult the local adviser. By that time, a serious proposal would have been given serious thought, and the governing body would be equipped to take a decision.

Taylor also expects initiatives to come from the staff or the governing body itself. For example, in careers teaching, the governors might act as a stimulus to ensure that the teaching is conscious of the needs of local industry and employment opportunities. In each case, it outlines a procedure which is a mixture of adult education and in-service training: an examination of the aims and implications, staff consultation, and a commitment to monitoring.

This is very different from what commonly happens. Consultation with teachers is by no means the rule. Justification to external representatives is exceptional. Yet the first group have to implement the decision, and the second have to live with the consequences. So Spanish replaces French, the CSE takes over from the GCE. Major changes for pupils may be introduced, if not at a whim, at least because of short-term staffing considerations. It is a strange state of affairs in a public system of education.

Apart from its consideration of the curriculum, Taylor also charts a way through the allocation of discretionary resources, appointments, and other minor functions of governors, and suggests a clearer procedural approach. It allies these functions with a positive duty to help the public appreciate the school, and the school to

better understand its public. There are safeguards for the school against 'wrecker governors' in the form of representation on the governing body and in the local education authority's ultimate control. There are training incentives to prevent indolent governors. The precedents of tenants' associations and neighbourhood councils certainly suggest that schools in every kind of area could attract new-style governors in the knowledge that there is a job to do.

Have to be invented

When Taylor was set up, much of the evidence suggested that if governors did not exist, they would have had to be invented. I find it surprising that the immediate professional comment is hostile. Perhaps the more considered response will be friendlier. For, in fact, it is not local education officials who will be landed with the extra work. It is the governors themselves and the headteachers who will be most heavily affected. For those heads who are not used to consulting, Taylor would indeed present a change. But in return the reformed membership will give teachers a legitimacy and a strength for their views. As the most permanently available and best organized group on governing bodies, they will be well placed to educate the rest. It is Taylor 'the teachers' friend', I would say, not Taylor the 'busybodies' charter'. But it is in the context of a new set of relationships. At the heart of the debate is the 'four quarters' argument, and its concept that, while there is no place for a new set of bosses, a partnership is a different proposition. It would be doing a new and necessary job. If, however, reform is limited to appointing a parent and teacher representative, that chance will have been lost.

That is a thought that the Government will no doubt be bearing in mind. Following the 'great debate', there are immense political pressures to bring the curriculum into the open. Taylor offers a pattern which is proving its relevance elsewhere. For the first time, education has a chance to respond to 'autogestion' or self-management ideas which are now taking root in Europe. The new era of relatively declining resources and actual decline in scale is a good moment to move into a new era of management too.

Educational broadcasting: the challenge of evaluation

JOHN ROBINSON

Education Secretary, BBC

Surely more public attention has been attracted to educational broadcasting in the 1970s than in any previous decade! From the Open University to 'Sesame Street', from sex education to the adult literacy campaign, the attention has ranged across all areas of education.

Interest during recent years has flowed quite strongly in the direction of seeking clearer evidence of the effectiveness of such broadcasting. A new tide was certainly released by the invitation to all educational bodies to submit evidence to the Annan Committee on the Future of Broadcasting. This caused these bodies to give particular attention to their assessment of the value of educational broadcasting; and the discussion was widened by the debate over new broadcasting channels.

The growing level of international interest was illustrated by the attendance of more than 200 delegates from thirty countries at the first world conference devoted to this subject and held at the Open University in 1976. Seventy-three conference papers and the full proceedings of that conference were published in book form a few months later.*

In the same month (January 1977), Professor Elihu Katz submitted to the BBC his report, *Social Research in Broadcasting*,† which developed a 'typology for research' that could certainly be applied to educational broadcasting.

The Annan Report

But it was the publication of the Annan Report itself,‡ and particularly of its three paragraphs 19.10 to 19.12, that brought this tide of interest to full spate. In the first of these paragraphs, the Committee referred to statements received from Lord Vaizey and the Standing Conference on Broadcasting that 'there was very little validated evidence that broadcasting was an effective educational medium'. They should have questioned these statements more rigorously. In fact, the Committee claimed to have found it 'extraordinarily difficult to get any objective evidence on the reality'.

* *Evaluating Educational Television and Radio*. Open University Press, 1977.

† *Social Research in Broadcasting: Proposals for Further Development*. BBC, 1977.

‡ *Report of the Committee on the Future of Broadcasting*. Cmnd. 6753. HMSO, 1977.

Either they did not try very hard or they looked in some very unlikely places, because the evidence lies around in great abundance.

It can be found in many hundreds of research reports carried out with full academic rigour in many countries, notably Europe, North America and Japan. (Several hundred reports concerned with school broadcasting alone are listed in a bibliography recently published by the School Broadcasting Council UK.)* It can be found in the personal testimony of many thousands of practising teachers. It can be found in reports of HM Inspectors.† It can be found by visiting schools that have used broadcasts and looking at the work that pupils have produced as a result. And it can be found in hundreds of thousands of adult students who have taken up systematic study as a direct response to the stimulus of broadcasting – in Open University courses, in language and literacy classes, and in many other learning situations. What evidence could be more objective?

No more general research

There is really no need for any more research into whether educational broadcasting can enable or assist the achievement of specified learning objectives. That is well proven. The need now is for more systematic enquiry into more complex and interesting questions. For example, what areas and forms of learning are most likely to be helped by broadcasting? What are the most fruitful interactions between broadcasting and other learning media? What kinds of developmental testing are likely to prove most reliable? How can one broadcasting project learn from the experience of another?

The Annan Report certainly performed a useful service by drawing attention to the need for more evaluation; and we should be grateful to the Committee for this. We should also be grateful to *Trends in Education*, for raising this issue as a 'Talking Point' in the summer issue (1977, No. 2), and to other educational journals for giving the subject a free flow.

Unfortunately the Committee also muddied the waters by introducing an entirely unnecessary opposition between 'subjective appraisal' and 'objective research' – as if these two modes were inevitably opposed. The real challenge of evaluation is that it should bring these modes into creative relationship. We need both modes in full supply, and to set them in opposition can only be destructive.

The School Broadcasting Council for the United Kingdom, the BBC Further Education Advisory Council and the Open University all see evaluation as a manifold activity, accumulating its evidence from many sources and through many channels. The same view is held at the Independent Broadcasting Authority and among the ITV companies.

Some of these channels will carry subjective appraisals; and, if this is professionally skilled and well informed, it is extremely

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* *Bibliography on School Broadcasting*. School Broadcasting Council, 1977.

† *Using Broadcasts in Schools*. BBC/ITV, 1974. *A Survey of the Use of Broadcasts in Schools in England and Wales*. DES, 1970.

valuable. Education as a whole would be in a poor way without it. We should have to sack all members of Her Majesty's Inspectorate, all LEA advisers and organizers, all examining boards and examiners for a start. Teachers would be advised by special research teams and student performance would be assessed by multiple-choice assignments through a research-programmed computer.

But some of the channels available to the BBC, the IBA and the OU will certainly carry objective research. The BBC's advisory councils have their own Research Section which conducts regular and systematic survey research; the IBA can similarly call on its Research Department; and the Open University has its Media Research Unit. All these systems have schemes of research fellowships or attachments and all warmly welcome the cooperation of external research groups, with whom production and field staff work with great willingness.

The BBC, the IBA, the OU, and their advisory councils also recognize the need for evaluation at several key stages of the educational broadcasting enterprise. These stages occupied a great deal of the discussion time at the International Conference in 1976 and there was a general acceptance of the following four main stages:

i. background research (into needs, audience definitions, feasibilities);
ii. formative research (during the formative stages of a broadcasting project or series);
iii. summative research (assessing the achievements of a project or series); and
iv. policy research (providing evidence for the development of major policy).

These different stages of research need different skills and different organization. Some are best performed by research staff in the same organization as the production staff. Others are, almost certainly, best performed by outside researchers. We are seeking all the time to learn more about these subtle judgements; and there is a growing body of agreement among media specialists and researchers internationally. Above all what we do know is that it all costs a great deal of money.

With this general background to the challenge of evaluation, it may now be useful to describe fairly briefly the methods currently in use by the BBC's advisory councils and by external researchers in collaboration with them.

School Broadcasting Council (SBC) education officers. The SBC education officers are all former teachers, many of whom have worked in teacher education. They are based at strategic centres throughout the United Kingdom. The meetings they arrange with local teachers, frequently attended by school broadcasting producers, provide a valuable exchange of views about past series and future needs. The education officers also visit schools, by arrangement

with the head teachers, to see and hear broadcasts with the teachers and children and to observe the follow-up class or group activity. Their reports give both a vivid and a critical picture of the pupils' reactions to the programmes and publications. These studies by education officers concentrate on series under current policy review for report to the SBC Programme Committees.

BBC further education officers. The BBC's further education officers are all former teachers in further education and are regionally based. The meetings they arrange for consultation and evaluation cover a wider variety of interests than those of the SBC officers and may consist of industrial trainers or evening-class teachers, nursing tutors or social service organizers, community relations officers or literacy tutors. Their follow-up visits are equally varied; but their reports have broadly the same purpose.

Producers' enquiries in collaboration with education officers. Research and evaluative enquiries are often carried out by the production teams. In some cases, this work includes the pretesting of programmes for entirely new series, which is conducted in collaboration with the education officers. This is particularly important in sensitive new areas, such as sex education, adult literacy, provision for the educationally retarded, and for the mentally and physically handicapped.

The BBC Research Section. The BBC Research Section carries out annual surveys and special surveys. The annual surveys cover primary schools, middle schools, all forms of secondary schools and further education colleges (based on systematic samples amounting to some 3,500 schools and colleges each year). The normal response rate is about 90 per cent. The questionnaire asks about the school's equipment and about each series of which two or more programmes have been used. Since 1969, by mutual arrangement, these surveys have also covered series produced by the ITV companies. Each year, the Scottish Education Department also collects similar data from schools in Scotland.

The special surveys, also based on postal questionnaires, cover the use of particular series in more detail and investigate any educational developments in schools that might have implications for broadcasting policy. In recent years, special surveys have been conducted into the use of modern language series, careers series, an English language series, 'Listening and Writing', and into developments in the curriculum for the 9–13 age group.

BBC Audience Research Department. The BBC's Audience Research Department has carried out several special enquiries into the nature of audiences for adult education programmes and regularly includes these programmes for audience reaction from its listening and viewing panels.

Work done by pupils and students. Hundreds of examples of children's writing in verse and prose are sent to the BBC in response to invitations from literature programmes. Some of these are frequently included in the programmes to give further encouragement. Education officers also report on art and craft and model work seen in schools and colleges.

External research. The Media Research Unit at the Open University is extremely active, both in general surveys of student use of Open University broadcasts and in in-depth studies of particular courses. Much can be learnt from these reports about research methodology (copies can be obtained from the University).

Apart from this detailed work on OU broadcasts, there are several current research projects based on BBC adult education series. A three-year research programme, funded by the DES and conducted under the auspices of the National Institute of Adult Education, is being carried out on the effects of the BBC's contribution to adult literacy. Research at Brighton Polytechnic on the multimedia course in German, 'Kontakte', and the follow-up radio course, 'Wegweiser', has now been concluded; and reports are available. Similar research at the University of York on the French course, 'Ensemble', and its follow-up, 'Sur le Vif', is approaching its final stages. These projects were funded from several sources. Another project, 'Trade Union Studies', which assesses the variety and extent of use of the multimedia course, is funded by the Social Science Research Council. There are several ongoing research projects on the television series for childminders, 'Other People's Children', at research centres in Oxford, Huddersfield and Liverpool (and again funded from several sources). Finally, the Hesther Adrian Institute at the University of Manchester has a proposal to evaluate a forthcoming series for mentally handicapped young adults and a radio series for their families, helpers and teachers.

There is less to report at present in the school broadcasting area; but the School Broadcasting Council and the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA) staff are currently engaged in discussion with the Department of Education and Science, in the hope of developing a DES-funded research project on the contribution of specific school television programmes to particular elements of language development.

So the picture is a great deal fuller than the Annan Report suggests. But there is certainly more that we should like to do; and we should always welcome further proposals from any research group that is interested in this area of education and would like to develop projects of this direct and practical kind.

A question of motivation

TONY BARNES

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Are we, the British, less achievement-oriented than we once were? If so, does this help to explain our relatively low economic performance in recent years? What implications does this have for the education system?

Displayed in the small nautical museum at Bucklers Hard, Hampshire, there is a school exercise book which once belonged to the young Henry Adams (1714–1805) – the village has been involved in the boat-building activities of the Adams family for some generations. On the first page of this school book every line has been filled with firm copperplate handwriting: 'a man's manners commonly shape his fortune'. Although it is questionable whether the concept could have been readily understood by the 8-year-old child who wrote it, this notebook, together with some exquisite drawings in the same showcase by his son at the age of 13, seem in a way to exhibit a sense of purposefulness and thrust which many feel is missing in education today.

One of the assumptions underlying much of the 'great debate' on education has been the view that the relatively poor economic performance of this country in recent years has been due, at least partly, to deficiencies in the education system. It has been suggested that not only has the content of the curriculum been insufficiently geared to the needs of modern industry, and that levels of achievement have been declining, but that, more insidiously, the values propagated by the schools are inimical to the world of industry and commerce.

However, it is possible to take an alternative view: to see both economic performance and academic achievement as together reflecting a general value orientation which has much to do with levels of motivation among the population as a whole.

Levels of motivation

An opinion Research Centre survey of British attitudes to money and work, published in *New Society*,* concluded that most people in Britain were 'remarkably unambitious in a material sense'. Very few sincerely want to be rich. Even if they could earn a lot of money, 'the vast majority do not seem prepared to work hard for it'. Yet, it is by no means clear whether materialistic values were actually being discarded in favour of growing roses and watching 'telly', or whether it was merely the means (i.e. hard work) of obtaining material goods that encountered such forthright rejection.

Some further light was shed on this topic by a student who had

* 28 April 1977, pp. 158–161.

recently conducted a survey among 500 16- and 17-year-olds. The respondents showed a strong preference for becoming models, actresses, and professional sportsmen as opposed to nurses, teachers, and scientists. This would suggest that although Britons, in so far as they are represented by the younger generation, do seem to want material success of a particular kind, they appear to be 'success motivated rather than achievement motivated'. That is, the majority will choose the possibility of instant success in return for apparently little effort – given that this is a remote possibility – in preference to rather more certain (and probably more modest) rewards for what appears to be greater effort.

Achievement motivation

Achievement motivation, or the need for achievement (n Ach), was a concept first developed in the 1950s by the Harvard psychologist, David McClelland, who was seeking to explain why some individuals appeared challenged by opportunity, while others (the majority) were not. He was also concerned to account for those sudden bursts of economic activity so characteristic of the rise and fall of nations.

McClelland showed that the individual with a high degree of achievement motivation is, first of all, a moderate risk-taker, one who is prepared to take a chance only so long as he has some control over the outcome. Secondly, high achievement motivation appears to reflect a deep psychological need for the constant challenge of tasks sufficiently difficult to offer a real sense of achievement. Thirdly, the high achiever requires a continuous stream of information about his performance: he needs constant feedback of results.

Significantly, there appeared to be some areas of human activity where individuals can be highly successful and yet neither need nor receive regular information about their performance; teaching, research, and public administration were cited as obvious examples. However, it is in entrepreneurial activities that high achievers seem most likely to find the challenge and continuous feedback that will stimulate their endeavours.

McClelland's theories have been subjected to extensive testing at both the macro and the micro level. When motivations of individual college students were measured by asking them to describe pictures capable of a number of interpretations and then counting the number of achievement themes mentioned, a marked correlation was shown between those individual students who had exhibited high levels of achievement motivation and their subsequent careers in industry and commerce.

Similarly, in 1950, McClelland confidently predicted that by the 1970s the economy of Britain would be encountering serious difficulties – a forecast that we have all had cause to rue. This assessment of our economic prospects was based on an examination of the popular literature and children's reading of the period. It had been noted that periods of rapid economic growth in societies appeared to be preceded by an increase in the number of achievement themes in such literature. Moreover, this was as true of Ancient Greece as of

modern Britain or France; interestingly, while in 1950 the populations of Russia and America showed similar levels of achievement motivation, at this particular point in time it seemed to be declining among Americans, but increasing among Russians.

Child-rearing practices seem to be a significant factor in the development of achievement motivation. Parents who set moderately high achievement goals, who were warm, encouraging and non-authoritarian and who favoured early independence in their offspring, were likely to develop high levels of achievement motivation in their children. Not surprisingly, differences have been found between nations and between different religious, ethnic and social groups within nations.

Since the level of achievement motivation in our own society appears to have been falling steadily even from the low levels noted in the early 1950s, it is tempting to wonder whether some corrective measure might not be desirable to halt this downward trend. For example, can achievement motivation be increased by appropriate changes in children's early reading material and by modifying child-rearing practices? These are questions to which we can only suggest answers.

School prizes given to our Victorian grandparents for regular and punctual attendance were stacked with achievement themes. Can books like *Eric or Little by Little* or *Climbing the Hill* have been completely without impact on their readers? My father, when talking of his father and his generation, says, 'they worked hard, played hard (and often drank hard)'. Is it merely by chance that an early reading book for Russian children shows a child being praised because he can already clean his boots, 'though just 4-years-old'? Again, should it be a source of national congratulation that in an international survey of children's reading primers in thirteen countries the British sample mentioned work least and had almost the most frequent mentions of play?

It may well prove difficult to ascertain the likely effect of including a few achievement themes in early reading material. The evidence also suggests that it is difficult, other than in the long term, to change national patterns of child rearing. However, there are other possibilities: since 1960, research psychologists under McClelland at Harvard have been working with some success on the development of short courses designed to raise levels of achievement motivation and to teach people to make the best use of their environment. Developments like these hold some promise for the future.

A-level psychology in schools

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The introduction of A-level psychology in schools was only sanctioned in 1975. This article describes how a boys' grammar school – one of the first in the North to offer candidates for examination in this subject – set up and successfully ran an A-level psychology course.

Some ten years ago, discussion about school psychology within the British Psychological Society and elsewhere, resulted in the setting up of a working party under the chairmanship of Professor C. I. Howarth. During these early years, the Associated Examining Board (AEB) expressed an interest in the possibility of establishing a General Certificate of Education A-level course in psychology and also created a working party, with Dr J. Radford in the Chair. The Schools Council agreed that a pilot, experimental syllabus should be constructed and introduced into a limited number of colleges of further education and selected schools, mainly situated around London and the south of England. The operation and examination of the syllabus was to extend over a number of years before being reviewed and evaluated. The pilot scheme proved to be successful, and in January 1975 the Council sanctioned the introduction of A-level psychology courses into schools on condition that a revised syllabus* was produced.†

The approach

From the outset, the examiners had carefully emphasized that the subject would require an 'objective experimental approach' that stressed the nature of scientific method as applied to psychology.

Nevertheless, since it was never intended to restrict the course to scientists, it was decided in my school to arrange the sixth-form subject options so that either arts or science students could take the psychology course. Only one of the nine students who elected to study the course was a scientist. The combination of arts subjects was interesting, and included English, scripture, history, geography, economics and art. Not all the students had an O-level pass in mathematics but this did not deter them, despite the rather daunting

* The current psychology syllabus can be obtained from the Associated Examining Board.

† For a detailed account of the origins of psychology A-level see: Radford, J. 'Enter the Sixth-Form Psychologist'. *Psychology Today*, Vol. 1, No. 3. 1975. Radford, J. 'Psychology in Schools'. *New Behaviour*, Vol. 1, No. 8. 1975. Rose, D. (Ed.) 'Focus on A-level'. *Psychology Teaching*, Vol. 3, No. 1. 1975. Breese, J. 'A-Level Psychology Course'. *Times Educational Supplement*, 1975.

prospect of having to cope with a strong statistical component in the psychology course.

Why choose psychology?

What promoted these students to choose psychology? There seemed to be several possible answers. Some who had been underachievers further down the school perhaps saw psychology as a subject which required no prior knowledge and in which they had no record of previous failure. To other students, psychology seemed to offer an attractive and suitable third A-level subject in which they felt they had a reasonable chance of success. Others again chose psychology because they thought it would be 'interesting', or possibly 'useful' in everyday life. At this stage, I had some doubts about the suitability of the content of the syllabus – doubts, for example, that teaching about mental illness might create disturbed youngsters, or that the subject might attract the 'wrong type' of student.

Initially, £200 was allocated to inaugurate the psychology department, part of which was invested in textbooks.* Various single copies of well-known psychology texts and classics were purchased. In addition, relevant journals and magazines were purchased or subscriptions were taken out.† This collection helped to establish what has now become a substantial psychology library. The remainder of the initial allocation of funds was devoted to the acquisition of simple materials for use in designing experiments.

Content of the syllabus

At first sight, the content of the syllabus was overwhelming. The examination was to consist of three papers. Paper One would contain a global introduction to the subject matter of psychology, and concentrate on four principal areas: scope and methods of psychology, cognitive processes, biological bases of behaviour, and socialization. Two options were to be presented in Paper Two: either comparative (animal) and experimental psychology, or social and developmental psychology. Paper Three would be devoted exclusively to practical work, including experimental design and statistics, and would account for 20 per cent of the total examination marks. To earn these marks, the students would be expected to conduct (or assist with the conducting of) at least ten experiments over a period of two years, to write up these experiments in a prescribed format and to file them together for eventual submission to a visiting external examiner at the end of the course. The external examination would consist of an oral test based upon the experiments contained in the

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* Texts purchased were: Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson. *An Introduction to Psychology*. 6th Edition. Harcourt, Brace and Jovanovich, 1975. Robson, C. *Experiment. Design and Statistics in Psychology*. Penguin, 1975. Knight, A. R., Knight, M. *A Modern Introduction to Psychology*. 5th Edition. London: University Tutorial Press, 1957. Herriot, P. (Ed.) *The Essential Psychology Series*. Methuen, 1975.

† Magazines purchased included *Scientific American* and *Psychology Today*.

practical file, during which the student would have to answer fairly detailed questions on the statistical techniques outlined in the syllabus and employed in the experiments.

Nine periods a week were timetabled for psychology. During the early stages of the course, these assumed the form of traditional class lessons, but this form of teaching was largely abandoned when some of the elementary groundwork had been covered and the student had begun to read more widely. The seminar approach was introduced in its place to encourage the students' participation and response. Communication and discussion were easy with such a small group of students; problems could be raised and solved in a semi-informal atmosphere in which the more withdrawn members of the class were made to feel less self-conscious.

As this form of teaching situation developed, and experimental projects were undertaken, the group became more cohesive, with students assisting and supporting each other in various aspects of their studies. Essays were set from time to time, some of which were collected and marked in the accepted fashion, while others were read aloud. This latter method proved to be very popular, since the students were able to compare their own standards with those of their peers. Printed handouts were usually prepared for difficult topics or if the textbooks contained inadequate information. Some notes were dictated but the more able students generally preferred to make their own from their reading.

Inspiring confidence

In the tradition of sound educational psychological practice, I inspected the theoretical areas of the course and selected topics which were already part of the students' repertoire or which bore some relation to their own experiences. Using already familiar material helped to instil confidence in the students from the outset. Consequently Pavlovian classical conditioning, previously studied further down the school, was used to introduce learning processes in the cognitive area. Students then progressed through operant conditioning to more advanced learning theories and information-processing models.

A similar approach was adopted with the biological bases of behaviour. The central nervous system was a reasonably safe topic with which to begin this course since all the students were familiar with it and could therefore proceed logically to a detailed study of the complex structure and mechanisms of the brain and its importance in determining the behaviour of the individual.

In the area of developmental psychology, some students were able to comment on the behaviour of brothers and sisters or to remark on practical contacts with infant nieces and nephews. In the discussions on conformity, leadership, crowding and other social psychological topics, it was possible to base a course on socialization on the accumulated life experiences of the group as a whole.

Practical work

The practical work was considered to be the most interesting part of the course, but it was also the most time-consuming both for the teacher and the class. Ideas and experiments arose mainly from the theoretical study of topics or from experiments of a more ambitious nature reported by others. The Schools Council General Studies Psychology Units,* which appeared at this time, also provided ideas for some practical work.

Depending on the nature of the projects, students often conducted their practical exercises with fellow sixth formers during the general studies lesson or used lunchtimes for the more sophisticated experiments, since this was the best time for obtaining younger members of the school to act as subjects. At other times, the psychology students themselves assumed the role of subject and the teacher acted as the experimenter.

Before embarking on an experimental exercise, the students outlined their ideas and supported them with apposite references in textbooks or journals. They arrived at an appropriate experimental design, discussed with me the material and subjects to be used, and proposed a hypothesis which they proceeded to test. I was usually involved in their preparatory work but gave only the minimum necessary guidance. The statistical treatment of the results was largely dictated by the experimental design chosen. If the statistical technique was new to the students, it was taught formally and systematically.

It soon became apparent that students were more prepared to accept statistics if they arose naturally from the practical exercises rather than being taught separately in isolation. The students were also motivated to familiarize themselves with statistical procedures so that they could appreciate the outcome of their experiments and be able to make sensible comments and criticisms.

The discussion of the results of experiments consumed a great deal of time but they were an integral part of the practical work, providing a means of assessing whether the students had demonstrated sufficiently not only their ability to conduct practical work sensibly and effectively, but also their ability to comprehend and interpret intelligently the end products of their labours. The students were meticulous and pedantic in the extreme in the evaluation of their findings. No attempt was made to write up an experiment until each member of the class was completely satisfied that nothing of value had been overlooked.

The content of the practical work varied greatly. Some experiments (for example, 'anagrams' and 'reaction time') were suggested by Gardiner and Kaminska in their textbook;† others ('memory span' and 'word meaningfulness') were a compilation taken from various

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* Dobson, C. B. (Ed.). *Psychology Collection*. Schools Council General Studies Project. Longman Resources Unit. York, 1976.

† Gardiner, J. M. and Kaminska, Z. *First Experiments in Psychology*. Essential Psychology Series. Methuen, 1975.

sources, while the text of Brown *et al** inspired an experiment on 'social class stereotypes' which was published under the title *Experiments in the Classroom*.† A number of other projects were imaginatively and ingeniously designed by the more creative students including a most interesting, valuable (and at that time topical) investigation into 'identification'.

Value of the course

Essentially, the students saw the real value of the course not only in terms of academic achievement but also in terms of practical utility. At the end of the course, they intimated that they were now in a better position to understand themselves and other people; that they were now unlikely to be influenced by current stereotyped attitudes; and that they would be better able to withstand advertising pressures, and foot-in-the-door salesmen. As one student put it: 'I now look critically at things, instead of just taking them for granted'. Five of the students hope to read psychology at university, while two more will study the subject at a college.

Some observations

The syllabus for the A-level psychology course tends to be extremely demanding in its scope and intensity at the sixth-form level, although the designers were right to avoid giving the impression that this was to be an easy subject, a veritable 'soft option'. However, with careful planning and critical selection of material for detailed study, teachers should be able to prepare their students adequately for the final examination in the length of time available.

Time, however, is a major factor at this level. The two-year A-level course runs effectively for only five terms and teaching time is precious, particularly in the first year. This is especially true of psychology which has to accommodate an interesting, though time-consuming, practical element which includes the somewhat tedious and irksome task of writing up experiments, mostly in the students' own time out of school, or in allocated private study periods, and allowance must be made for this when formal written work is set. It would be unrealistic and unfair to expect students to devote extra time to psychology at the expense of their other A-level subjects.

It has been agreed by both teachers and students that the allocation of marks to Paper Three bears no relationship to the amount of time and effort that has to be invested in the practical work. A maximum of 20 per cent may seem to be an inadequate reward for the hours of energy and application that a conscientious student might expend on this aspect of the work. Nevertheless, marks gained in this part of the examination might be extremely critical for students

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* Brown, G., Cherrington, D. H., and Cohen, L. *Experiments in the Social Sciences*. Harper and Row, 1975.

† Dobson, C. B. *Experiments in the Classroom*. Schools Council General Studies Project. Interplay Collection 1976.

who find difficulty in answering written papers. Indeed, these marks could significantly affect the final grade awarded to a student, and for this reason alone, teachers and students should be encouraged to adopt a more positive attitude towards them.

One important observation must be made on the lack of suitable books and materials. At present, any course in pre-university psychology has to rely heavily on a diet of books selected from a plethora of texts produced across the Atlantic. Consequently, the research reported is, of necessity, American in its orientation. In the past, textbooks have been designed mainly for university undergraduates and postgraduates and thus are difficult for younger students who are just embarking on the subject. It would appear that the 'Essential Psychology' series and the various psychology books published by Penguin are very popular but that they fail to satisfy the need for a more basic course text.

Attitudes of the universities

It would appear that all but one of the universities will accept psychology on a par with other A-level subjects for the purpose of satisfying entrance requirements. Over 90 per cent of the universities stipulate that mathematics at O-level (at least) is required or desirable to read psychology, and some universities also favour biology. More and more students are applying to read psychology each year and it is clear that while any combination of subjects from arts/science disciplines will be acceptable, a student who is able to combine mathematics, biology and psychology might find himself at an advantage.

Not all university psychology departments are enthusiastic about A-level psychology in schools. Some university dons claim that the subject is done badly below university level since it requires greater maturity than most other A-level subjects. Some universities seem reluctant to accommodate the student with A-level psychology, and are unwilling to modify or change the structure of their first year courses. The nature of the GCE psychology course is such that a student with this qualification who enters a university psychology department could find the work repetitive and boring because he has effectively covered already a substantial amount of the first year course. This could be avoided if the university department of psychology were prepared to accept the challenge and to provide alternative schemes. A large number of universities do, however, welcome a student who can produce evidence of a sound background in psychology, such as the one provided by the A-level syllabus.

One further claim is that those who teach psychology in schools should have a degree in the subject. In this instance, it would be dangerous to equate a teacher's enthusiasm and willingness with academic and professional competence.

From my own experience of teaching psychology I have no hesitation in recommending it to others. It might be appropriate to

conclude with a statement written by a student-teacher on final teaching practice who had spent twelve weeks assisting in the psychology department:

> 'There is little doubt as to the suitability of psychology as an A-level subject for the boys at present studying it at this school: formulating hypotheses and devising experiments to test them is exercising their formal operational thought to the full, and their adolescent idealism is working at making them try their utmost to be better, more understanding and aware individuals, relating what they learn in the classroom to their everyday lives. Surely no one can deny the educational value of a subject which provokes such behaviour?'

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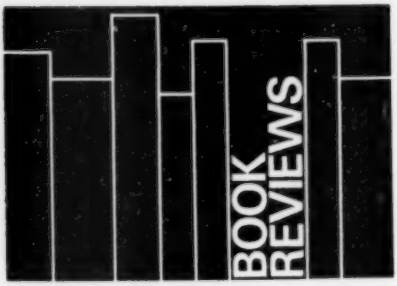
88 West Way,
Broadstone,
Dorset

Dear Sir,

Dr Norman Beswick (TRENDS 1977/3) believes that 'as soon as economic circumstances permit, there is an unanswerable case for appointing as school librarians only those people whose professional competence as librarians has been demonstrated by their admission to the register of chartered librarians maintained by the Library Association'.

Would he agree that there is also an unanswerable case that no school librarian should be appointed who has not received adequate training in the theory and practice of education?

Yours faithfully,
Don Rogers
Vice Chairman
School Library Association



The sociology of comprehensive schooling
Paul Bellaby
Methuen £1·60 paperback

The ecology of the school
John Eggleston
Methuen £1·60 paperback

The socialization of teachers
Colin Lacey
Methuen £1·90 paperback

The sociology of educational inequality
William Tyler
Methuen £1·80 paperback

Sociology continues to be productive and these four books are the first in a series on the 'Contemporary Sociology of the School', which promises to run to at least eleven titles.

In *The Sociology of Educational Inequality*, William Tyler gives a revealing account of the complex causality of inequality and the ineffectiveness of analyses and solutions which fail because they persist in explaining everything by single determinants such as privileges, backgrounds, IQ or school organization. In particular, the author stresses that the institution which theorists have said most about in discussing inequality – namely the educational system itself – is the one that probably matters the least. He ends with a plea for a new definition of social justice and the need to equalize not opportunity or provision, but the use made of resources by various sectors of society. This may well mean unequal distribution of the social good of education to the advantage of those who have less of everything else. There are no single answers, but this short book provides an excellent summary of the current debate and points to some solutions.

From a different angle, Paul Bellaby, in *The Sociology of Comprehensive Schooling*, reaches a similar conclusion that it is a mistake to suppose that schooling alone can repair the inequalities which he maintains are inherent in capitalist relations of production. He outlines the history of English comprehensive schools, compares it with the experience of other countries, especially in Western Europe, and appraises the extent to which the intentions of reformers who favour comprehensive schools have been achieved. It is history from a particular, but always overt, standpoint, and it offers a most stimulating and perceptive account of the comprehensive movement.

In *The Socialization of Teachers*, Colin Lacey is concerned with developing the methodology of research. He proposes a theory and conceptual framework for studying socialization, invents new concepts and terms, and looks forward, somewhat optimistically, to a time when teachers will make their own analytical appraisals of the sociology of school in the conviction that this will lead to a 'more effective action in the pursuit of purpose and a professional stance with respect to pedagogy'. His plea that 'the socialization of the teacher' should figure more prominently in initial and postgraduate training courses is not wholly convincing.

In *The Ecology of the School*, John Eggleston, the editor of the whole series, provides an account of how the distribution and use of resources within the various local authorities and schools produces different environments and consequently different schooling experiences and rewards. It is an interesting, but by no means new, approach, and the application of the language of ecology – which is new – seems pretentious and unnecessary since it obscures rather than enhances the points

that are being made. One important environment, namely that provided by the independent schools sector, is not featured in this study although it would offer a rewarding point of comparison.

Taken together, these volumes suggest that the series as a whole is to be welcomed. The books are short but they provide authoritative reviews of the current literature and the state of the debate in their respective fields, which will be of use both to students new to the field, and also to those wishing to bring themselves up to date with recent developments in the subject.

D. W. SYLVESTER

On teaching

Herbert Kohl

Methuen £3·95 hardback, £1·80 paperback

The title of the book suggests an essay rather than a text, and in many ways the style lends itself to light reading for interest rather than to serious study. The theme is of interest to parents and all who are concerned about what happens in schools, as much as it is to teachers themselves.

The author is writing for an American readership and no attempt has been made to translate 'junior high schools' or 'school boards' for UK consumption. More startling, however, is the chapter title 'The Politics of Teaching' which falls oddly on the English ear. It is not a chapter about salary negotiations, but about ways of introducing innovatory teaching methods into schools without encountering the hostility of parents, caretakers and colleagues. In much of the detail, problems at this level have a depressingly familiar ring. The message, though, is clear and well argued. Innovation is a complex and far reaching process, in which people's personal and social attitudes are challenged. It cannot happen overnight, nor can it happen without the full and informed cooperation of all concerned.

The section entitled 'The Craft of Teaching' sets out some vivid and well-documented case histories of imaginative teaching. These are the more impressive in that they are often set in schools and classrooms where physical violence and vandalism are an everyday event. As a practising teacher himself in such a school, the author describes in detail not only how he copes with the wilder behaviour of his pupils, but how he uses their feelings of frustration and anger to help them towards learning and understanding.

For these reasons the book is well worth reading. Perhaps the level of violence in American schools exceeds the worst of UK experience, perhaps not. In any case, many who teach in our schools today will be glad to read the personal account of one who, as he says, has not only learned to teach well but 'to survive while doing it'.

PAULINE PERRY

Explorations in classroom observation

Michael Stubbs and Sara Delamont (editors)

Wiley £6·85 hardback

Communication and learning in small groups

Douglas Barnes and Frankie Todd

Routledge and Kegan Paul £2.50 paperback

There is no shortage of opinion on teaching methods in schools, but a remarkable shortage of firm information on what actually happens in classrooms. There has been surprisingly little research into this highly important topic, and most of this has been American. Perhaps the best known work is that of N. A. Flanders, whose interaction analysis offers a relatively simple means of recording what happens in the exchange between teacher and pupils. It supplies the observer with a ready-made set of categories by which to classify the behaviour of both. It is the restrictive nature of this procedure which is criticized in *Explorations in Classroom Observation*. The book takes as its starting point the need for 'anthropological' study of classroom practice, whereby the observer is not bound by preordained categories but is able to immerse himself in the experience of the classroom and record freely what he sees. The book is a lively, refreshing chronicle of the insights that can result

from this approach. The essays are uneven in value, but among them are significant contributions to the debate. The collection would have gained from a stronger linguistic presence, for this aspect of interaction is underrepresented. For example, the important work of John Sinclair and his colleagues on discourse analysis receives only a footnote mention.

Another acute observer of the classroom scene is Douglas Barnes, whose work in this book is instanced only by a footnote reference to *Language, the Learner and the School*. Since then he has produced *From Communication to Curriculum* and *Communication and Learning in Small Groups*, the latter in co-authorship with Frankie Todd. Its premise is that by discussing a topic in small groups, pupils can clarify their own thinking on the subject as well as one another's understanding of it. If too little is known about the verbal transactions in class between teacher and pupils, even less is known about those between pupils. The book by Barnes and Todd is a serious attempt to produce a descriptive system to account for how learning takes place when pupils collaborate on a task without the immediate involvement of a teacher. This provides a useful guide, and in the modest account of how they devised it one would take issue only with their oversimplifying denial of a relationship between meaning and linguistic form. The book is a useful contribution to our understanding of the interactive processes by which children learn, a topic which deserves a good deal more detailed study of this quality.

R. ARNOLD

The training of teachers in England and Wales 1800–1975

H. C. Dent

Hodder and Stoughton £4·95 hardback, £2·35 paperback

The *Training of Teachers in England and Wales 1800–1975* traces the history of teacher training from its beginnings in the training colleges of the 1840s to the reorganization of the colleges of education in 1975. It is a very skilful summary of the main landmarks: the training of pupil teachers; the rise of the voluntary colleges; the increasing concern to train specialist teachers; the reforms of Morant in ending the pupil-teacher system; the growth of LEA colleges; the McNair report which brought all teacher training under the supervisory umbrella of the universities; and the new regulations for further education of 1975, which brought that part of teacher education which lay outside the universities into a common system of higher and further education.

Though intended for student teachers, and, ironically, appearing at a time when the value of the history of education in initial training is being increasingly questioned, it is, in other respects, a timely publication. It points out that the recent changes have ended a system of teacher training in residential monotechnic colleges which had lasted, with progressive changes in curriculum and method, for almost a hundred and fifty years. It puts into perspective the perennial, and still prevailing, curricular problem of teacher training – that of finding the correct balance between academic study and professional training. It charts the change from the central government curricular control exercised through the committee of Council and Board of Education regulations and Her Majesty's Inspectors, to that of the Joint Examining Boards, the university Area Training Organizations and now, with the move to an all-graduate profession and the recent administrative changes, increasingly to that of the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). It ends with the hope that when the new system has fully emerged, it will be better than the one that 'has been deliberately destroyed'. Only the history of the future will tell if the hope is justified, but, meanwhile, this is a reliable and interesting, though in places tantalizingly short, account of the history of teacher training to the present day.

D. W. SYLVESTER

Tom Brown's universe

J. R. de C. Honey

Millington Books £6·00

Books about public schools in particular and in general are usually strongly partisan. They set out to prove or justify something; the superiority of such schools to others; the arguments for or against their existence; the unfair advantages that come to their old boys; the bullying or immorality or enlightenment that distinguishes them. Mr Honey's book, which is a model of scholarship, is a welcome change. It deals with the Victorian period and draws on a very wide range of sources, details of which occupy more than sixty pages.

It is impossible to do justice to this remarkable book in a short review. It shows how the great nineteenth-century expansion of public schools took place and what were the ideals and intentions of the various bodies and individuals who founded them. It shows that most if not all of the twenty-three schools which Mr Honey, on a carefully calculated basis, puts in the 'top group' in 1902 were for gentlemen, boarders and Anglicans. 'We have never admitted any pupil from the middle class', wrote the founder of Bradfield in 1852. 'All our boys are sons of gentlemen.' Many other schools, some of which would now rank in the 'top group', were for the middle, lower middle and even artisan classes. Canon Woodard, who established a whole group of schools with Lancing at the top, Hurstpierpoint and Denstone on the second level and Ardingly and Ellesmere on the third, apparently saw this not as 'a device to perpetuate social division but as a means of promoting social unity'. 'Pupils from the lower stratum would be able to use the system as a ladder.' The whole structure was to be bound together by Christian faith and charity and in particular by Anglo-Catholic practices. This hope was hardly realized but Mr Honey makes it clear that much of the sociological research (for example, Guttsman's) has been based on a false classification, which treats as members of the public school community in 1902, schools which were not so regarded and which, far from being *élite* schools, acted as the means by which boys from humble homes were recruited through scholarships to the more privileged classes (for example, The Earl of Oxford and Asquith from the City of London school).

The educational and social characteristics of public schools, how they recruited their staffs, what they thought of themselves and why, despite obvious shortcomings (for example, poor hygiene, bad and insufficient food, harshness and lack of privacy), they were supported by the middle and upper class parents of Victorian England, are all critically examined. The power and influence of these schools is now diminished. Mr Honey's book provides an indispensable source of information about how that influence grew and for a time dominated the educational scene. No researcher or school historian can afford to be without it.

JOHN BLACKIE

Former Chief Inspector, HM Inspectorate

Counselling adolescents in school

Anne Jones

Kogan Page £4·95 hardback

Anne Jones was employed as a school counsellor in Mayfield School, Putney, in 1965 – one of the earliest such appointments to be made in this country. Although a trained teacher, she did not teach at Mayfield; her part-time appointment was committed to providing a counselling service. (She describes this experience fully in her earlier book, *School Counselling in Practice*. Ward Lock, 1970.)

Mrs Jones' new book incorporates this earlier book with some slight revision and up-dating, mainly to take account of the changed patterns of organization of the social services. Two chapters have been added. Chapter 1, 'Counselling and Adolescence: What Now?', is a wide-ranging review of the

contemporary scene in which the thinking is evidently illuminated by the author's experience as a headmistress.

In reviewing the present state of play in counselling and guidance, Mrs Jones is splendidly provocative and her first chapter is packed with observations, questions, statements and opinions that could (and should) stimulate discussion between teachers, administrators, counsellors and heads. Sometimes it is only too evident that the words came tumbling out, and the reader has to grapple with the feelings that generated them, rather than with their content. No matter. She speaks from a wealth of experience, to which she has applied not only her counselling perspective but also the insights of a teacher, a head, a parent – and, it should be noted, plenty of common sense.

Chapters 2 to 10 are substantially the same as previously published in *School Counselling in Practice*. There is a detailed account of the establishment and operation of the counselling service at Mayfield, and, in that context, the practical solutions of many important issues are explained and discussed. The setting up and development of a counselling service in any educational institution is a highly individual affair, and must take fully into account all the local characteristics. There are, however, important considerations common to all such situations – the organizational framework, aims and principles, role limitations, relationships between staff and counsellors, communications with outside agencies, referrals, support for the counsellor, and so on. Mrs Jones discusses these matters realistically and helpfully. Much of what she has written was set down almost a decade ago, but it is still usable. The chapter 'What is Counselling?', is relatively superficial, even dated, and of all the chapters in the first book, perhaps the one most in need of extension and revision. But the reader will be helped towards a better understanding of the author's view of counselling by the many examples given in chapters 7 and 8. Many of these could provide valuable case-discussion material for staff seminars and training groups.

In the final chapters, 'The Counsellor's Problems' and 'The Counsellor as Educator', Mrs Jones returns again to the discussion of some of the key issues in the practical business of providing a counselling service in schools. Rightly, I believe, she sees counselling as 'an integral part of the education process', its purposes and its objectives located within the conceptual framework of guidance. Surprisingly, Professor Ben Morris's seminal writings on this subject get no mention in her bibliography, which is, however, particularly helpful in that she has classified it in broad categories of interest.

In many ways, this book gives us a highly personal view of counsellors and counselling, and Mrs Jones puts forward her views with an almost daunting conviction; but her writing is, above all, authentic. I hope this book will be widely read; it will surely generate both heat and light.

ANDREW FULLER

For art's sake?

Jack Cross

Allen and Unwin £5·00 hardback, £2·25 paperback

The *Classroom Close-Ups* series, of which this book is one of the titles, sets out to answer the questions: 'What really happens?' and 'What really matters?' in education. This particular book undertakes an appropriately realistic overview of the current position of art in secondary education. Jack Cross takes the notion of professional accountability as his starting point and asks what kind of evaluation of the results of art teaching would be relevant and useful. The fact that this question is not fully answered does not detract from the value of this very readable account of the author's own priorities as an art teacher and his identification of a number of the rationales that lie behind much of current practice.

The early chapters proceed briskly to deal with such topics as 'What is art?' and 'What is an artistically educated person?' The author indicates his preference for the Barratt and Witkin model of three interdependent elements in creative activity – the conceptual, operational and synthetic – and defines the artistically educated as those who accept an aesthetic response as a valid attitude. This emphasis on the cognitive aspects of art education, as more relevant to later life, underlies the largest section of the book which describes five major teaching strategies. There is little that is new in their identification, but they are well illustrated by references to the realities of life and conversation in the art room. The consequences of a single-minded adherence to any one strategy are convincingly argued and an appropriate scepticism is shown towards claims of transfer of skills and perceptions.

The central theme of the book is encapsulated in the chapter on the place of art in the secondary curriculum where teachers are encouraged to consider how disciplines combine to form a curriculum and the essential and contextual contribution of art.

Assessment and evaluation are notoriously difficult areas in art education at all levels and here the author appears less certain of his position. The relationship with objectives is usefully described as are some American initiatives but it is disappointing to find that it is thought probably not possible to understand each child in a class and evaluate how far he has gone along the road to genuine self-expression through art.

This book should both stimulate the experienced teacher and provide some valuable insights for the student.

G. T. PEAKER

Learning to write, or writing to learn?
Jeanette T. Williams
NFER £2·25 paperback

The slogan 'Language across the curriculum' has been affixed to policies and documents of differing, sometimes opposing points of view. The clearest common factor appears to be an uncritical approval, now widespread through the education system, of the notion of cross-curricular attention to language in relation to children's learning. There are some teachers who, in literal reaction, have dismissed the whole business, but here, for the first time, is a rational critique of language across the curriculum in the form of an examination of the Schools Council project *Writing across the Curriculum*. One must welcome Jeanette Williams' lucid dissection of the hypotheses which underlie not only the project but much of the theoretical basis of the movement in English teaching, so influential over the past decade. This movement, led by Professor Britton, Douglas Barnes, Professor Rosen, Nancy Martin *et al.*, adheres to a 'growth and personal development' model of education. This is important, because the author, after discussing the design and development of the project in Chapter 1, goes on, in Chapter 2, to question the epistemological foundation of a great deal that is now being published on reading, writing and mother-tongue studies in general.

The kind of category confusion that mars so much educational writing is coolly described in Chapter 2 and the distinction between the common inductive approach (cf. the various 'language in use' projects) and the hypothetico-deductive approach of modern scientific theorizing is addressed quite squarely in Chapter 3, on the role of theory in curriculum research. I welcome this injection of Popperian coolness into the overheated confusion of educational writings which serves not to help but to befog the classroom teacher. Attacks will doubtless be made upon this volume by those who misread the author's work or who ignore her conclusions. She is not denying any usefulness to curriculum practice of the Writing Research Unit's work; she is taking the debate on English teaching several steps further than the facile and opaque equations – transactional writing = bad: expressive

writing = good – which are distorting the work of English teachers and which other subject teachers find at best inconsistent and at worst meaningless. Lack of space precludes illustration of the many pedagogical implications contained in this book, the brevity of which is quite disproportionate to its value.

PETER GANNON

Language across the curriculum

Michael Marland

Heinemann £6·60 hardback, £2·95 paperback

Michael Marland is a prolific writer; his latest work is both lengthy and eclectic. Chapters or sections by eight other contributors are included and this volume, like the Bullock Report, embodies views held by educationists who differ widely in philosophy and approach. Part I contains a valuable overview of the scope of linguistic theory, which (although slightly dated in its treatment of transformationalist analysis) is also an account of theoretical applicability to teaching. This chapter, however, is virtually ignored in the rest of the book. Chapter 4, Part II, has useful things to say, in Mr Marland's brisk and buoyant style, about teachers' attitudes to language. But after that the eclecticism of the volume's composition becomes more disturbing. It is difficult, for example, to see the interrelationship of all the contributions that consistute Chapter 5 other than that imposed by the chapter heading – 'Pupils' Use of Language'.

The last third of the book, by Mr Marland himself, is devoted to what he disarmingly calls 'classroom technicalities' and 'school organization'. In dealing with the first of these topics, he addresses himself to his favourite concerns with spelling, punctuation and study skills and here (although it will not do to misuse the term theory as he does when writing of his views on punctuation), sensible things are said; it is less easy to see the relevance of Chapter 7 to most teachers' preoccupations on school organization, which in any case is thin, although helpful on the matter of testing.

The book is, as the publicity states, an essentially practical work, addressed to a wide audience. The worrying feature of much that is being published on language across the curriculum is the fact that assumptions accorded the status of axioms underlie a good deal of the argument. This leads to the uncritical use of terms such as transactional, expressive, linguistic and functional. There is need for a more rigorous examination of the whole, amorphous language across the curriculum concept.

PETER GANNON

Schools of thought

Mary Warnock

Faber £5·50 hardback, £2·95 paperback

The place of commonsense in educational thought

Lionel Elvin

George Allen and Unwin £6·50 hardback, £2·95 paperback

The sociology of the school curriculum

John Eggleston

Routledge and Kegan Paul £4·95 hardback, £2·25 paperback

Durkheim thought that education was 'the methodical socialization of the young'. This may sound grim to tender minds but it remains true. It implies that the curriculum is and ought to be a social and political matter since it involves the perpetuation of given social arrangements, or perhaps a desire to change them. All three books accept these considerations. Mrs Warnock is concerned with definitions, possibilities and the logical consistency (or otherwise) of many current notions and dogmas. For example, she explores the implications of 'equality' in education: its relationship with equity, justice, distribution, opportunity and even envy. In the main, she finds that while equality may guide us to distribute education as such more fairly, it is a quite inadequate guide regarding the content of that education, the actual curriculum.

Professor Eggleston's work compliments that of Mrs Warnock. He has fashioned a full and well-documented survey of the historical development and socio-political constraints upon the curriculum in England and on those who seek to influence it. We are reminded about the conflicts surrounding the definition of useful and acceptable knowledge; the status of certain subjects at certain times in history; and the ways in which groups seek to move in on the curriculum-determining process. There is a clear exposition of the contrast between the received or time-hallowed perception of knowledge as described by some of its prestigious contemporary adherents (Phenix, Hirst, Bruner) and the more critical and freewheeling 'reflexive' approach, distinctly failing to be awed by the past (Illich, Whitty and Young). The synthesis of this particular conflict is Eggleston's suggested 'restructuring perspective' which, in short, accepts but also adjusts the received orthodoxy.

Thus, where Mrs Warnock analyses the broader considerations that affect curriculum design, Eggleston analyses the machinery, the institutions and the assumptions within which the designers work. He finds 'macro' power structures like the Schools Council less effective, and 'micro' ones like headteachers, staffroom interactions and 'hidden' curricula more effective than is generally supposed. These are the kind of considerations that curricular speculation ignores at its peril.

Mrs Warnock and Professor Elvin give sound reasons for rejecting differentiated curricula. As Mrs Warnock observes, egalitarianism has led more naturally to the view that all children should be taught in accordance with the same curriculum. For related reasons, we hear of the need for common examinations or systems of examinations. To differentiate may be to perpetuate divisions and to trap people in certain cultural patterns, *pace* the views of Midwinter and Bantock. Elvin's work does not offer the sustained analytical precision of Mrs Warnock's, nor does it tap the same reservoir of data and research as Eggleston's. Questions which are approached rigorously by the other works are here treated more anecdotally and discursively. In the first section, Elvin is occasionally provocative, for example when he opines that commonsense might suggest not compromise but a 'clean break' in the touchy area of religious education. However, the familiar problems of 'commonsense' are manifest elsewhere and notably in the second section, for example with its liberal sprinkling of soft-line hopes and reassurances which beg questions: 'We have got to find a new balance'; 'We could react too far' and primary children needing 'A reasonable command of English'. Eggleston reminds us of the world of power, issues and conflict – and of politics by which we seek to resolve these things. Mrs Warnock tells us that curricula 'once made tend to get frozen into immobility' and also that the fixing of broad curricular aims need not be left to professionals. That is what the Ruskin speech, the great debate and the Green Paper have all been about. The curriculum ice-age is closing now; in a democracy many groups want to be 'in on' the debate and will be. All this is 'political' in the broadest sense as the writers remind us – and that consideration boils down to Lenin's recurring question: 'Who? Whom?'

R. A. S. HENNESSEY

Cooperative care: practice and information profiles

Roger Watkins and Deborah Derrick (editors)

Centre for Information and Advice on Educational Disadvantage £1·00 paperback

Services concerned with the care and education of children are frequently criticized for their failure to work together harmoniously and productively. Seldom do we hear about examples of good cooperative work between services, although most professional workers now seem more willing to work together in amity.

Much remains to be done, however, and the Centre for Educational Disadvantage in this report offers very brief details in the form of 'case-study profiles' of twelve initiatives in the field of cooperative care. The examples deal with the cooperative organization of social and welfare work, both problem-orientated and preventive, in schools and local authorities. Fuller notes on six of these are available from the Centre* at 50p each.

Effective joint working depends not on an identity of outlook among the services but upon a readiness by each to understand the viewpoint of the other. The report faces the difficulties squarely, helped by the frank comments of the various professionals involved. This publication it is hoped, will encourage a re-examination by authorities and professional workers of the needs for joint working and the means by which this may be encouraged.

C. A. NORMAN

Walking and climbing
Walt Unsworth
Routledge and Kegan Paul £2·95 hardback

Walking and Climbing is a short, simple introduction to mountaineering in Britain. Aimed at the young teenager, the style is interesting and the basic safety aspects are generally well covered. The author recognizes the need for more detailed guidance on the complex skills of safe movement in mountains, especially in winter conditions. Appropriate emphasis is, therefore, given to the need for experienced adult instruction in the more hazardous pursuits and the reader is encouraged to think out why certain advice is given and to consider the consequences of thoughtless action and inadequate preparation. Personal kit, clothing and specialist equipment are systematically dealt with but the information is scattered over several chapters. A check list would have been especially helpful for young people to refer to. A strange omission in the section on benightment is simple emergency provision, such as a waterproof polythene bag, spare food and clothing. In fact the book states 'In summer it would be foolish to go out on the hills equipped with all the gear necessary for a bivouac'. Decisions on the scale of such provision must be associated with informed weather forecasting, an understanding of local conditions, knowledge of the area and physical fitness – items which are given insufficient attention. The book ends abruptly with a list of useful references, but with few suggestions for progressive activities. While it has not enough detail to be an instructional book and lacks the description necessary to capture the spirit of mountaineering, supported by some excellent photographs it whets the appetite.

F. R. KITCHEN

A guide to teaching practice
Louis Cohen and Lawrence Manion
Methuen £6·75 hardback, £3·95 paperback

Criticisms of the gap between theory and practice seem endemic to teacher training literature, and Louis Cohen and Lawrence Manion start with the assumption (only in some cases true) that the criticisms are deserved, and that better approaches to the teaching practice element within the initial training curriculum are the means of bridging the gap.

The theoretical framework of their book is based on interaction analysis, and on the definition of objectives in behavioural (skill) terms, both for teachers in training and for their own use in lesson preparation. The use of microteaching techniques, simulations and diagrammatic approaches to lesson planning, are the main ingredients recommended for an improved curriculum, especially in the pre-teaching practice period of the course.

Perhaps the most useful parts of the

* An independent organization based in Manchester (11, Anson Road, Manchester M14 5BY), set up by the Department of Education and Science to act as an information centre giving advice on the curriculum, on teaching methods, and on good practice relevant to the education of the disadvantaged.

book are the section on evaluation, assessment and record keeping, which is an excellent, practical and full exposition of this vitally important area; and also the seven appendices which are mines of information on resources, useful addresses and references, and helpful definitions of terms.

It would, I suppose, be churlish to wish that it were possible to write about the processes of teaching and learning without extending language into formidable and intimidating jargon. Of course we must learn to discuss teaching in more accurate, even scientific terms. Talking about 'modern methods' 'child centredness' and so on, has often obscured rather than illuminated argument. But one hopes that the admirable attempts to talk about the practice of teaching, of which this book is an example, can succeed within the boundaries of clear and understandable language.

My only other regret was that so little is said in the text about the use to be made of teaching practice experience in the students' formal learning after the practice period. Early in the book, the authors say they believe that theory should illuminate practice and practice inform theory. The methods recommended go further in achieving the former aim than in ensuring that the feedback and observation during teaching practice is carried forward into the longer term theoretical learning of the initial curriculum.

PAULINE PERRY

Social studies in elementary education (5th edition)

John Jarolimek

Collier Macmillan £10·50 hardback

Interest in and analysis of teaching in the social studies area of the curriculum have grown in recent years in the USA and this book adds considerably to the guidance available to teachers for designing such courses. For practising teachers, the very thorough development of each of the four sections of the text will be helpful if they need to structure a new scheme for social studies or if they wish to evaluate and extend their existing approaches. For teachers in training, the extensive array of considerations for planning work are clearly listed. Some might say these lists are too full and therefore formidable, but they offer teachers the opportunity to select according to the priorities of their own situation.

The author opens with course planning through the recognition of the key generalizations of the contributory disciplines, the identification of enquiry skills and the clarification of attitudes and values. Patterns for short- and long-term organization are well illustrated. The generalizations are pitched at a fairly abstract level and it is not always clear how these are translated into primary school practice. On the other hand, examples of classroom activities, in marked contrast, are quite appropriate.

Part two presents a balanced picture of the subject contributions; there are helpful teaching suggestions and clear statements of objectives but teachers may find they need more experience and guidance in the formulation of further generalizations to broaden the basic definitions provided. These subject areas are extended to involve matters of social concern especially to afford opportunities for first-hand investigation.

The third part deals with processes and skills, ranging comprehensively over such matters as the purpose and extension of reading skills within social studies, the development of open-ended questioning techniques, the interpretation of maps, globes and charts, and the use of games and simulations to stimulate and involve children. Different evaluation and assessment techniques are outlined in the final section, again for teachers to select the most appropriate for their needs.

Illustration is minimal and of mixed value; there are one or two scenes of interesting classwork. Among the attractive features of the book's layout are the numbered lists of key points and the framing of supporting examples for easy reference.

The book handles many educational aspects whose applications go far wider than the social studies curriculum.

D. J. LEWIS

Educational provision 16–19

Judy Dean and Bruce Choppin

NFER £2·30 paperback

In the introduction to this booklet, the authors state that most of what has been published on this topic is either polemic argument for or against particular types of provision, or a case study of particular institutions by interested parties. The booklet goes on to quote from such writings and provides a substantial list of references. Also included are some statistics but these appear to be confused, perhaps because the basis of published figures for institutions operating under further education regulations is significantly different from that of schools operating under secondary regulations.

Unfortunately the booklet then purports to draw conclusions. This is made all the more dangerous by the fact that the booklet appears under the apparent heading of a research report. In fact, the booklet does not report research; it presents a subjective selection of quotations of opinion, casually mixed with the authors' own opinions. In a brief review, it is impossible to list, let alone discuss, the range of fallacies and inaccuracies perpetrated in this so-called report, but two examples may illustrate the level of argument.

After a cursory review of the question of examination reform which does not even mention the Schools Council's recent resources exercise on N and F level examinations, or the impending publication of detailed discussion documents, the authors jump to the conclusion that '. . . it now seems unlikely that N and F will be introduced'.

At another point in the summary of conclusions, the authors state that 'The present operation of sixth form colleges under schools rather than FE regulations, brings no real advantage'. No evidence is given to support this statement, in spite of the fact that most of the people currently responsible for running such colleges would say the opposite. Similarly the authors 'conclude' that 'The tertiary college is probably more economic to operate than the dual sixth form college/FE pattern'. This is stated in spite of the fact that, on the authors' own admission, there is no evidence. Indeed, the impression held by many people concerned with the comparison is that the opposite may well be the truth.

These examples are, unfortunately, typical of the whole. The publication of such a document by the National Foundation for Educational Research raises, I should have thought, important questions about the role of the NFER. The report – which is, after all, on a very important subject – seems to have been written without either the facilities or the time for serious research. I can only hope that its readers will not be misled.

R. J. STEPHENSON

Principal, New College, Telford

Racial disadvantage in Britain: the PEP report

David J. Smith

Penguin Books £1·25 paperback

This publication brings together the findings of a series of Political and Economic Planning (PEP) reports on racial disadvantage in employment and housing in this country. It also includes the results of a survey of the characteristics of racial minorities now in Britain. These reports have already been published and have, in fact, strongly influenced the nature of the new laws against racial discrimination. The book, therefore, does not present new material, but at the very least provides a handy source of reference.

The survey of racial minorities (1974) was based on sample interviews with 3,292 Asians and West Indians, using Asian and West Indian interviewers, after enumeration visits to 36,000 households. It provides us, therefore, with a great deal of reliable information about the identity of these minorities, why they came to Britain, where they

originated, the age structure of the population, the balance between men and women, the size of families, and similar details. An example of this is the information about the proportions of lone parents in these sub-populations: 13 per cent in the West Indian households as compared with 9 per cent in the population at large, but only 1 per cent in Asian households. We already know that there are differences, but it is useful to have an idea of relative size. Irrespective of our political views, this basic information is made available for us to use in whatever way we wish.

The work on housing and employment may be considered rather more controversial, but a steady reading of the chapters builds up a convincing picture of discrimination against the minorities. In so far as there is a thesis, it is that this discrimination emerges from the existing policies of the principal institutions in the fields of housing and employment. It is not the result of plots and conspiracies or of a conscious policy. However, the conclusion is drawn later that the presence of such minorities forces upon us the need for a more definite social policy to open up opportunities for the disadvantaged, whether these be of the majority or minority populations. Again, we can argue about the nature of desirable public policy, but all should benefit from realizing that in our present system, the results of our unconscious policies have been to discriminate against the minorities and, the disadvantaged generally. 'We have not intended this but it has happened', would be the lesson.

From a strictly educational viewpoint, the book is disappointing as no similar detailed study of education is provided to match the work in housing and employment. To that extent, the comment at the end can only call for more help for teaching in a general way, more language training facilities for the adults, and more schemes for the young unemployed. Nevertheless, economic and housing policy crucially affects educational possibility, so we need to know the situation. Furthermore, the unintended consequences of our general lack of policy towards new settlers in this country may equally apply to the education service. We do need clearer public policies to provide a framework in which individual effort to help all the disadvantaged can fruitfully operate.

The careful documentation of this book removes the excuse of ignorance about the current position of racial minorities, while acknowledging that they themselves do not provide the majority of the disadvantaged.

COLIN ROBERTS

Teaching in a multicultural society: perspectives and professional strategies
Dolores E. Cross, Gwendolyn C. Baker, Lindley J. Stiles (editors)
Collier Macmillan £9·00 hardback

In this book, a group of professors and graduate students, primarily from Michigan and Illinois, present the results of their struggles to advance the multicultural society. Their aim is to make teachers more honest in their response to multicultural conditions and better informed about the American background of racial problems. The first section deals with the 'multicultural concept', rejects the unicultural condition of the American past, and pleads for a curriculum that promotes a common humanity. The second section seeks to prove that America is now a pluralist society: it shows that desegregation of schools does not work unless teachers alter their attitudes; reviews questions of language learning; attacks Jensen on intelligence; and considers the educational objectives of a multicultural society. The third purports to describe practical approaches in school.

The first response of the English reader is likely to be irritation. A preliminary page carries the motto 'For those with hands extended,' although this is not referring to pupils who are asking to leave the room, but to those with feelings of universal benevolence.

The preface begins with four lines of

verse from one of the contributors. These lines were particularly hard to accept particularly in the week of the death of Robert Lowell whose poetry offers the kind of personal disturbance that could profoundly affect our view of American society. On page 42, having just been treated to two pages of potted cultural history that ranges from Zoroaster to Harold Howe II and apparently proves something, we are told that teachers 'need to become true intellectuals'. On page 14, we read: 'The teacher begins to respond to the reality of cultural diversity by being aware of self as a resource, accessible material, and personal lack or presence of outreach orientation to extend knowledge'. Not all the book is written in this style because it is by various hands, but at this point one begins to wonder how one can possibly recommend the expenditure of £9·00, which is the prohibitive cost of the publication.

There are some things to be salvaged from the book, even for this prejudiced reader, but we do have to work hard for them and the section on practical implementation is disappointing. Too many teacher trainers rather than practitioners were in the working group. However, there is quite a lot of useful information about the American educational system, the history of black education, and the present problem of desegregation policy in the USA. We can see that the policies of interracial education have to move beyond a patronizing approach: a 'human rights' approach that stresses common humanity has some attraction. Even here, however, we get little help at the point when real problems emerge because of strongly different cultural viewpoints, for example, in the attitude to women. Increasing the sensitivity of teachers is fine as an objective, but too often this turns into simply getting others to share a particular point of view.

The chapters on children's language and on the intellectual strengths of minority children aim to bring together the results of recent scholarship as background for teachers. The work of the Rosens and Halliday is included in the review. Perhaps the value of the book at this point and in some other sections is that the reader may be led to consider his own knowledge and awareness. After all, we must carry similar collations of information, or more limited ones, in our own minds and they might look rather confused if we scrutinized them. The authors ask us to develop our own self-awareness to the problems of any multicultural society. The book is perhaps a challenge to us all, individually or in our local groups, to give our own answers to some of the questions being raised. Only those who have done this have the right and the competence to be justly critical.

COLIN ROBERTS

Special units in ordinary schools: an exploratory study of special provision for disabled children

Christine Cope and Elizabeth Anderson

University of London Institute of Education

£2·95 paperback

This book reports and comments on a study of units for physically handicapped children in ordinary schools. It provides much-needed information in an area of current debate more noted for opinions than facts. Children in the units were on average achieving as well as others in special schools but they were provided with less adequate medical services and physical facilities. Their teachers were also less well supported by advisory and psychological services. Although many of the children studied were benefiting academically and socially from attending ordinary classes, a much larger proportion of unit children could have spent more time with their contemporaries 'had integration been a major goal of the special and ordinary staff and had more thought been given from the planning stage onwards, as to how this could be achieved'.

The recommendations provide a useful check list for anyone planning units, and for teachers in ordinary schools and special units when reviewing their work.

J. R. FISH

Our children's crippled future: how American education has failed

Frank E. Armbruster with Paul Bracken

Harper and Row £11·25 hardback

This is a substantial work which musters an impressive array of statistical evidence to make the point that educational standards in America have been declining over the last few years. This situation, it would appear, is not unparalleled from previous periods – evidence is quoted for an undulation in standards with low achievement in the '20s rising to a peak in the mid and late '30s, falling precipitously in the '40s, starting to rise in the '50s to reach a peak in the mid and late '60s, and declining steadily since then. Nor is the decline even throughout the ability range. It is greatest among the higher performing students, while among the lowest performers there has been a slight gain. The undulations and current decline in performance need to be viewed against a striking rise in the nation's IQ (as shown in particular by Army tests) between the wars, followed by a plateau and, in some states, a slight decline over the last few years.

The sheer weight of evidence is overpowering, but one cannot wholly supress certain doubts – doubts which do not seem to be shared by the author. Nowhere is there any suggestion that the testing of academic achievement – especially testing over a period of time – is a difficult undertaking, fraught with uncertainties. Test results are quoted over a wide span of years – from 1939 to 1948, from 1934 to 1954, with no suggestion that the tests themselves might have 'aged' or that the content of the educational programme might have changed to such an extent as to make them no longer fully valid. The evidence of tests is supplemented by what can only be described as the author's romantic vision of a past golden age: 'The great depression era saw high student/teacher ratios . . . many schools of second generation immigrants whose parents couldn't speak English . . . little money for education . . . yet pupils who couldn't read by the seventh grade in those days were virtually unknown. They could also do long division, knew history, geography, could write compositions and scored some of the highest grades on ninth-grade academic achievement we have ever seen.' (One cannot help but question the educational judgement of someone who talks of 'knowing history and geography' *tout court*.)

If the study of the symptoms appears simplistic, the diagnosis and proposed remedies are even more simplistic. The reasons for the decline are straightforward. The teachers are primarily responsible. They are overpaid and underworked, and their privileged position is guarded by the two teachers' unions whose combined membership the author suggests 'may even outnumber the largest single union in the country, the monster Teamsters' Union conglomerate'. They and the educational theorist have been responsible for importing into schools fashionable ideas about the progressive curriculum and for downgrading the importance of rote learning. ('The new maths stresses an emphasis on logic that may have a very debatable effect on small children'. A Delphic utterance, one must acknowledge!) One outcome of the progressive attitude to the curriculum is the collapse of discipline in schools. The view that schools are only one, perhaps not the most important one, of the influences affecting the achievement and behaviour of students is sharply dismissed – again with reference to the success of education in coping with the problems raised by large-scale immigration in the earlier part of this century.

The solutions offered are equally predictable. One must monitor academic achievement trends and ensure that the general public both have access to this information and can understand it. On the basis of this, one must judge the cost-effectiveness of schools and of teachers within schools. This judgement could well be carried out 'by comparing children's achievement test scores on entering a class with their scores upon leaving a class'. The general public

should take a hand in defining the curriculum and ensuring that the new-fangled ideas are kept in their place.

> 'Given no proven alternative, trustees and parents should insist that elementary school students be given the same amount of class time on the fundamentals as they had in the past. This would mean for example close to a full hour each day of reading, writing and arithmetic in the first four grades plus some time on such subjects as spelling and penmanship each week.'

In short the solution is to go back to the 'good old days'.

It is easy to find fault with the book for its naivety. In the end it does its case a disservice by the crudity of the analysis and of the recommendations. It is not as simple as all that. There is a problem, but it awaits a more perceptive analysis and a more sensitive approach to a solution than is to be found here.

BRIAN KAY

Reviews in brief

Leisure Crafts Series

Search Press have recently added five new titles to their excellent Leisure Crafts Series: *Simple Printmaking*, *Stone on Stone*, *Fun Figures*, *Macramé Jewelry*, and *Macramé Platehangers*. (The American spelling is a gesture towards the important American market, but the books are British in origin.) Attractively produced, clearly written, and very well illustrated, they should interest most craft teachers both in primary and in secondary schools. They have one additional merit in this day and age – at 50p each, they are mercifully cheap.

British qualifications (eighth edition)
Barbara Priestley (compiler)
Kogan Page £10·00

British Qualifications has now established itself as an almost indispensable guide to educational, technical, professional and academic careers and qualifications in Britain. The eighth edition has been considerably revised and updated.

International dictionary of education
G. Terry Page and J. B. Thomas with A. R. Marshall
Kogan Page £10·00

All disciplines generate their own jargon, and education suffers from this malady more than most. Yet, curiously, good dictionaries of education are few and far between. The *International Dictionary of Education* is a good one. I have used it a great deal over the last few months and, so far, I have not consulted it for any definition that was not there. It is clear, admirably succinct, and (as far as I can judge) accurate. As it is also intended for use in the United States, its internationalism tends to be UK-US biased but, given the Anglo-Saxon world's fearsome aptitude for generating educational jargon, this is perhaps no bad thing.

This international dictionary is a useful book, and I for one am grateful for it.

IAIN PATERSON

Additional books received

ANDERSON, ELIZABETH M., and BERNIE SPAIN. The child with spina bifida. *Methuen, £7·50.*

ANNAND, J. B. Education for self-discovery. *Hodder & Stoughton, £3·95 (£1·95 paperback).*

BISHOP, LESLEE J. Staff development and instructional improvement: plans and procedures. *Allyn & Bacon, £11·95.*

BOLITHO, HAROLD. Meiji Japan. (Cambridge Introduction to the History of Mankind: Topic Book.) *Cambridge University Press, £1·25.*

BONNER, STANLEY F. Education in Ancient Rome. *Methuen, £9·50 (£5·90 paperback).*

BOWER, TOM. The perceptual world of the child. *Fontana/Open Books, £3·50 (£1·00 paperback).*

BRISTOW, THELMA. Library learning: the way to self-help in education. (Education Libraries Bulletin Supplement Twenty.) *Library of the University of London Institute of Education, £2·25.*

CALLAHAN, JOSEPH F., and LEONARD H. CLARK. Teaching in the secondary school: planning for competence. *Macmillan, £5·25.*

CASTALDI, BASIL. Educational facilities: planning, remodelling and management. *Allyn & Bacon, £13·60.*

COLEMAN, ANNE. Fabrics and threads for schools. *Batsford, £2·95.*

CRYSTAL, DAVID. Child language, learning and linguistics. *Edward Arnold, £4·25 (£1·95 paperback).*

DOWNEY, MERIEL. Interpersonal judgements in education. *Harper & Row, £3·95 (£1·95 paperback).*

DOWNEY, M. E., and A. V. KELLY. Theory and practice of education: an introduction. *Harper & Row, £4·85 (£2·75 paperback).*

EISENSON, JON, and MARDEL OGILVIE. Speech correction in the schools (fourth edition). *Collier Macmillan, £9·75.*

ERICKSON, RICHARD C., and TIM L. WENTLING. Measuring student growth: techniques and procedures for occupational education. *Allyn & Bacon, £11·95.*

GLIDEWELL, JOHN C. The social context of learning and development. *Gardner Press, £14·20.*

GOODNOW, JACQUELINE. Children's drawing. *Fontana/Open Books, £4·50 (£1·25 paperback).*

GOULD, JULIUS. The attack on higher education: Marxist and radical penetration. Report of a Study Group of the Institute for the Study of Conflict. *Institute for the Study of Conflict, £5·00.*

GRONLUND, NORMAN E. Measurement and evaluation in teaching (third edition). *Collier Macmillan, £6·25.*

HAFNER, LAWRENCE E. Developmental reading in middle and secondary schools: foundations, strategies, and skills for teaching. *Collier Macmillan, £9·75.*

HESTER, HILARY, CAROL WAINWRIGHT, and MARY FRASER (editors). English as a second language in multi-racial schools. *National Book League, £0·85.*

LAWTON, DENIS. Education and social justice. *Sage, £8·00 (£3·50 paperback).*

McKENZIE, MOIRA, and AIDEN WARLOW (editors). Reading matters: selecting and using books in the classroom. *Hodder & Stoughton, £1·25.*

MEADOWS, R. G. Technician physical science 1. *Cassell, £2·75.*

MOHR, DIANA H. Adult education and the physically handicapped person: a research monograph. *The Disabled Living Foundation, £2·00.*

MOOR, CHRISTINE H. From school to work: effective counselling and guidance. *Sage, £6·00 (£3·00 paperback).*

PETERS, R. S. (editor). John Dewey reconsidered. *Routledge & Kegan Paul, £4·50.*

PIPER, DAVID WARREN, and RON GLATTER. The changing university: a report on the Staff Development in Universities Programme 1972/4. *NFER, £11·75.*

RAVEN, JOHN. Education, values and society: the objectives of education and the nature and development of competence. *H. K. Lewis, £11·75.*

ROWNTREE, DEREK. Assessing students: how shall we know them? *Harper & Row, £3·95.*

SHOTBOLT, C. R. Technician workshop processes and materials 1. *Cassell, £3·00.*

SHUTE, HELEN. Underlying factors in reading success and failure. (Aston Educational Enquiry Monograph No. 3). *University of Aston in Birmingham, £1·35.*

SPACHE, GEORGE D. Investigating the issues of reading disabilities. *Allyn & Bacon, £13·75.*

STERN, DANIEL. The first relationship: infant and mother. *Fontana/Open Books, £4·50 (£1·25 paperback).*

STRADLING, ROBERT. The political awareness of the school leaver. *Hansard Society, £1·50.*

THOMAS, ELLEN LAMAR, and H. ALAN ROBINSON. Improving reading in every class: a sourcebook for teachers (second edition). *Allyn & Bacon, £15·95 (abridged version, £6·35).*

TOMLINSON, JOAN. On a May morning. *Hickey Press, £1·80 (£2·02 by post). (Available from The Faculties Partnership, 177 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London SW1V 1ER.)*

TOUGH, JOAN. The development of meaning. *Unwin Education, £6·00 (£2·95 paperback).*

TUCKER, NICHOLAS. What is a child? *Fontana/Open Books, £3·50 (£1·00 paperback).*

VAIDYA, NARENDERA. The impact of science teaching. *Oxford and IBH Publishing Co., New Delhi, Rs 14·50.*

VAIDYA, NARENDERA, and J. S. RAJPUT (editors). Reshaping our school science education. *Oxford and IBH Publishing Co., New Delhi, Rs 15·00.*

WAKEFIELD, TOM. Special school. *Routledge & Kegan Paul, £2·25.*

WARWICK, DAVID (editor). Education and 16+. *National Book League, £0·65.*

WILLIAMS, ALMA. Reading and the consumer. *Hodder & Stoughton, £1·25.*

WISHART, TREVOR. Sounds 2: a second book of musical games. *Universal Edition, £0·75.*

WISHART, TREVOR. Sun 2. *Universal Edition, £2·75.*

WRIGHT, R. C. Expectations of the teaching of social work in courses leading to the Certificate of Qualification in Social Work. (Consultative Document No. 3). *Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work, free.*

ZALTMAN, GERALD, DAVID FLORIO, and LINDA SIKORSKI. Dynamic educational change: models, strategies, tactics, and management. *Collier Macmillan, £12·00.*

Trends in Education

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